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ABSTRACT

This monograph on work experience program models is designed to help prime sponsors of programs under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) understand the potential of the work experience activity as an employability development tool. The content is presented in seven sections. The first section is a brief introduction, while section 2 presents a working definition of work experience. The focus of the third section is on the labor market mismatch between the labor force and the supply of jobs, and the need for an intervention such as work experience. The fourth section covers the advantages of the work experience strategy for specific population subgroups, work simulation, and other community human service systems. Section 5 overviews the historical evolution of the work experience models developed under categorical programs. The next section examines the key steps in the program planning process and the crucial elements in designing work experience programs. Its focus is on setting the goals and objectives of program design, targeting the client groups, adjusting program content to client needs, developing assessment designs, designing administrative structures and components, and scheduling for implementation. The concluding section describes seven work experience program models. (EM)

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Work Experience Perspectives: CETA Program Models

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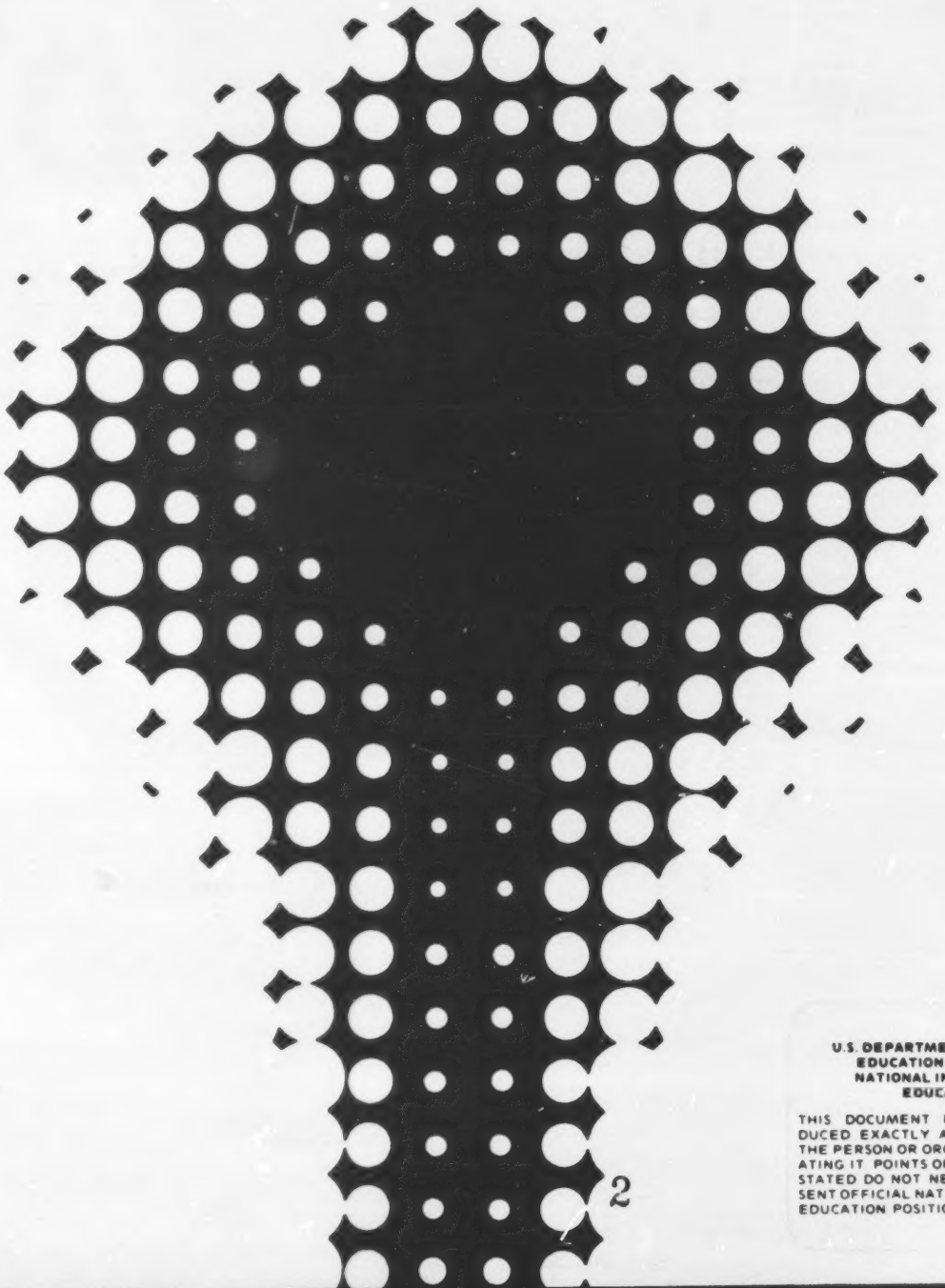

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Work Experience Perspectives: CETA Program Models

U.S. Department of Labor
Ray Marshall, Secretary

Employment and Training Administration
Ernest G. Green
Assistant Secretary for Employment
and Training
1978

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SPECIAL NOTE

This monograph is one of a series entitled *CETA Program Models* prepared for the Employment and Training Administration's Office of Community Employment Programs, with financial support by the Office of Research and Development. The series, on program activities and services, was prepared under contract number 81-11-71-09 with the National Council on Employment Policy and edited by Garth Mangum of the University of Utah.

The monographs being issued or prepared for publication are *On-the-Job Training* by James Bromley and Larry Wardle; *Job Development and Placement* by Miriam Johnson and Marged Sugarman; *Classroom Training--The OIC Approach* by Calvin Pressley and James McGraw; *Supportive Services* by Susan Turner and Carolyn Conradus; *Intake and Assessment* by Lee Bruno; *Work Experience Perspectives* by Marion Pines and James Morlock; and *Public Service Employment* by Ray Corpuz. Others may be added as circumstances warrant.

The authors, experienced employment and training program operators themselves, review the purposes and means of carrying out CETA functions and comment on methods they have found useful in conducting programs and avoiding pitfalls. The series is commended not only to program operators and their staffs, but also to community groups and other employment and training services professionals in the hope that this information will enable more people to learn about CETA programs, stimulate new ideas, and contribute to improving the quality of employment and training programs.

The series should not be regarded as official policy or requirements of the U.S. Department of Labor. Although every effort has been made to assure that the information is consistent with present regulations, prime sponsors are urged to consult current regulations before adopting changes the authors may advocate. The authors are solely responsible for the content.

Another series of use to CETA prime sponsors and their staffs is *CETA Title VI Project Description Reports*. There are two volumes in this series. The first monograph was prepared by MDC, Inc., Chapel Hill, N.C., under contract number 82-37-71-47. The second volume was prepared by ETA with assistance from prime sponsors, regional offices, and a private contractor.

Copies of other titles in these series may be obtained from:

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ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Marion W. Pines was director of the Job Corps' first recruitment and screening demonstration project and originated the Job Corps GATEhouse (graduate aid to employment) concept. While in that position, she was elected to chair the greater Baltimore Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS), which she chaired from 1967 until 1972. She then became the founding director of the Baltimore Mayor's Office of Manpower Resources and the Baltimore Metropolitan Manpower Consortium, one of the Nation's largest CETA prime sponsors. She is a member of the Urban Coalition's Employment Task Force, the U.S. Conference of Mayor's Employment and Training Council, U.S. Department of Labor's Directors Work Group, the Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey advisory group, and the National Council on Employment Policy.

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Pines and Morlock are frequent contributors to local and national publications, including the National Association of Counties' *County Manpower Report*, where they have written on such topics as on-the-job training, program performance indicators, public service employment and welfare reform.

PREFACE

This monograph is designed to help prime sponsors understand the potential of the work experience activity as an employability development tool. It is hoped that the material presented will provoke a greater awareness of the variety of program alternatives available when this very flexible strategy is used. The several work experience program models described indicate the potential that this strategy can offer for innovative program designs at the local level. It is the authors' contention, based on extensive field experience, that the impact of work experience can be considerably broadened when coupled with related classroom training, survival skills, remedial education, job search skills, counseling, or other specialized developmental services required by the particular target population selected for service.

As background information for prime sponsors, this monograph examines recent labor force trends that suggest the need for an intervention such as work experience in order to increase the labor force participation rate and permanent labor force attachment of various population subgroups. The specific problems faced by some of these subgroups when attempting to qualify for other activities such as skills training, public service employment, or on-the-job training are reviewed. There is evidence that these activities frequently are geared to educational levels that exceed the qualifications of an important segment of a delivery system's clients. In contrast, work experience models are more successful in assisting the educationally disadvantaged.

The monograph also includes a brief historical overview of the evolution of the work experience models developed under categorical programs. Many important programmatic elements from Neighborhood Youth Corps, Operation Mainstream, Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector (VEPS), New Careers, and other efforts are examined with a view to encouraging prime sponsors to combine the best aspects of these experiences with the flexible and creative possibilities under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA).

A substantial portion of this work experience monograph is devoted to a detailed examination of the key elements of successful program model building. They include setting the goals and objectives of program design, targeting the client groups, adjusting program content to client needs, developing assessment designs, designing administrative structures and components, planning implementation techniques, and scheduling. Chapter 7 contains descriptions of specific program models from both urban and rural areas that illustrate the translation of these program components into meaningful local activities. These prime sponsor case studies also demonstrate how manpower management principles can be built into subcontracts or subgrants and monitored for evaluation and accountability.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The age structure of this country's population and its changing social roles are the primary causes of the substantial and continuing expansion of the labor force that the United States will experience for at least the next 10 years. Birth rates peaked in 1958 and 1959 and then began a decline that has continued for nearly two decades. Yet persons born in 1958 are now 19 years old, and the number of new youthful entrants to the labor force is at an alltime high.

In addition, the long run labor force attachment of population subgroups is changing. Although overall labor force participation is increasing, these gross statistics mask trends for some subgroups. For example, substantial increases are occurring in white female participation rates, accompanied by slight declines in the rates for males of all races.

What are the implications for prime sponsors? The expanding supply of available personnel due to surging female and youthful new entrants intensifies the competition for the limited number of new entry-level job opportunities. For at least the next few years, there will be a scarcity of attractive entry-level job opportunities, particularly for the competitively disadvantaged. For many, the result of the unsuccessful job search will be chronic unemployment, discouragement, and an extended loss of labor force attachment that will result in welfare dependence.

Clearly, intervention by manpower planners is needed. This monograph describes in some detail the program possibilities inherent in activities aggregated as "work experience." It suggests that effective coupling of "experience" with other manpower services can be used for maximum employability development for a diverse set of jobseekers.

Also, the work experience strategy has the potential for a significant role in local economic development. One of the keys to the expansion plans of current employers, and a major attraction for new employers, is the quality of the local labor force. Locally developed, innovative manpower activities can significantly influence the quality of a potential local labor force. For example, through various program designs, which include blocs of experience in actual work settings, new careers can be explored before a final commitment is made, occupational skills can be field tested, interpersonal relations and habits can be established to achieve appropriate "work adjustment," and self-concepts can be developed and positively reinforced to produce a greater likelihood of labor market stability and future success.

It is therefore increasingly clear that the need for work experience programs among a substantial segment of the client population is the consequence of the interaction of broad-scale changes in the demographic mix of the potential labor force participants and the occupational mix of industry in the 1970's and 1980's. A substantial long-term increase in the surplus pool of new entrants and unskilled labor and the long-term decline in the private sector's demand for unskilled and untried workers create and maintain groups of persons with no firm ties to the labor force.

There is a specific need for work experience activities among defined segments of the potential labor force described above, such as (but not limited to) legal offenders, the physically and mentally handicapped, and dropouts who are struggling to make the transition to the world of work and economic self-sufficiency. These manpower clients are intensely frustrated by rejection that is based on "lack of experience." But they also know they cannot get experience until they have had a job! To add to their frustrations, these same clients are often excluded from obtaining the credentials of formalized training because of educational barriers. Locally tailored work experience strategies can provide these persons with an important link between their past dependency and their future productivity.

2. TOWARD A WORKING DEFINITION OF WORK EXPERIENCE

The CETA Title I regulations for fiscal 1977 define work experience as:

> . . . a short-term and/or part-time work assigment with a public employer or a private nonprofit employing agency designed to enhance the employability of individuals who have either never worked or who recently have not been working in the competitive labor population for an extended period of time. . . In addition, work experience may include a short-term work assignment while an appropriate classroom training, on-the-job training, or public service employment opportunity funded under this Act is being developed.[1]

To some, this concept of work experience is translated to mean a mere "holding-pattern" for enrollees while an appropriate classroom training, on-the-job training or public service employment oppurtunity is being developed. This view of work experience underestimates its potential as an employability development strategy, particularly when coupled with other significant program elements.

Definitional problems are further compounded by the lack of precise "real-life" distinctions between work experience and public service employment or between work experience and public sector on-the-job training. It is true that public sector (or private nonprofit) on-the-job training may have a more structured training curriculum than *some* public sector work experience models. And public service employment regulations mandate payment of comparable wage rates for comparable work (which militates against serving the least qualified but most needy clients). Yet the strategies are often used interchangeably, particularly in a recessionary economy when a work experience strategy will often be used as an economic and job-creation stimulant to give some of these very clients a foothold in the world of work. Thus the distinctions between and among the various manpower activities remain murky.

The present generic reporting system used by all prime sponsors aggregates diverse program designs under five program activities: (1) Classroom training, (2) on-the-job training, (3) public service employment, (4) work experience, and (5) services to clients. This reporting system presupposes clear distinctions among these activities which in fact, as noted above, do not exist. Current reporting masks the extensive use of complex "coupled" programmatic activity, which may be statistically reported under only one activity, such as work experience. This current reporting and definitional problem presents a dilemma for the Department of Labor, the Congress, and manpower analysts in interpreting and fully understanding the range of prime sponsor activities.

The dilemma can translate into hardship for prime sponsors when national grant review guidelines are developed, based on perceptions of local activities that meet narrow or categorical definitions. Such perceptions can be self-limiting to the system and can understate, if not inhibit, the creative potential of prime sponsors.

The discussion in this monograph presupposes that the employability development possibilities of the work experience strategy have not been fully recognized or understood at all levels of policymaking. As a result, work experience has often been downgraded as a local policy option.

It is suggested that the considerable potential of this option might be realized if work experience were more appropriately described as "manpower activities that expose enrollees to simulated and actual work conditions, expectations, and job content similar to those encountered in the unsubsidized work world." For maximum effectiveness, consideration should be given to coupling such activities with classroom occupational training, job search skills training, remedial education, performance assessment, counseling, and various supportive services. A major long-range objective should be to increase the labor force attachment of various population subgroups such as youth, the handicapped, ex-offenders, older workers, and the long-term or sporadically unemployed.

[1] "Comprehensive Manpower Program and Grants to Areas of High Unemployment," *Federal Register*, vol. 41, No. 124, June 25, p. 26,356.

3. LABOR MARKET MISMATCH: THE NEED FOR WORK EXPERIENCE

The primary objective of a comprehensive manpower delivery system should be to match and adapt jobs and jobseekers in the most effective and efficient manner possible. Constraints on the labor market's ability to absorb all available labor resources and inefficiencies in the matching process itself result in a residual pool of jobs and jobseekers; that is, some jobseekers will not be able to obtain suitable jobs, and other jobs will remain unfilled for want of appropriate workers. This situation requires the intervention of other manpower options to help resolve the mismatch by either training workers to meet the needs of employers, by adapting jobs to meet the needs of workers, or by creating new jobs.

Work experience programs, properly conceived, may directly or indirectly impact upon both the demand and supply sides of this labor market equation. But to properly design such program models, prime sponsors need information about the current and future state of the local labor market, and they need to intelligently translate this information into policy and programs that serve the mutual needs of jobseekers and employers.

Experience has shown that work experience models have a continuing role in periods of low unemployment as well as in times of recession. It is evident that the number of persons who want to work exceeds the available pool of unsubsidized jobs. Unless the economic growth rate substantially accelerates (at the risk of increased inflation), both the labor force and the number of potential jobseekers outside the labor force will continue to increase much faster than the supply of good jobs.

The second dimension of the mismatch is that the compostition and geographic location of labor demand are not adequately coinciding with the characteristics and location of the labor supply, particularly of chronically unemployed persons. Urban areas have actually witnessed an increase in the proportion of undereducated and unskilled jobseekers in the last 20 years. At the same time, major employing industries that traditionally abosrbed these workers, such as manufacturing, have been leaving these urban centers.

Changes in Employment Demand

Changes in the composition of demand for labor contribute to the employment and training problems in many localities. As noted above, marked decreases in manufacturing and construction employment have occurred in the inner cities of large metropolitan areas. Low-skill and entry-level positions have been hardest hit by these changes. In comparison with the jobs that these local economies are losing, the new job opportunities that are emerging generally require workers with higher levels of education and interpersonal skills.

In addition, rising federal minimum wages and other protective legislation may have reduced opportunities for youth and other new entrants to gain access to the world of work and futher training and advancement. Thus the pool of entry-level jobs has diminished at a time when supply of new entrants to the job market is reaching an alltime high.

Work experience opportunities are therefore a valuable mechanism by which potential workers are exposed firsthand to the expectations and skill requirements of a rapidly changing labor market and at the same time provide entry-level opportunities that are in short supply.

The Employer's Quest for the Motivated Worker

Surveys of local employers indicate that industry is as concerned about the attitudes of jobseekers as about their skills and education. In many instances, employers say they are not looking for jobseekers who have been trained (preferring to do this themselves) but instead seek "motivated" workers. This trend may be expected to continue even as the unemployment rate declines.

How alienated are American workers? Is there a decline in their work ethic? And what significance does this have for local manpower policy and strategies such as work experience? Despite public concern over alleged increasing worker alienation, national surveys in 1973 indicated that about 90 percent of the labor force is satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs.[2] Futhermore, there is no evidence from national studies of a long-term decline in satisfaction. For the last 15 years, the overall percentage of workers satisfied with their jobs has ranged between 81 and 92 of the labor force.[3] Of course, the impact of the recession on these attitudes is unknown.

There is strong evidence, however, that the distribution of job satisfaction varies significantly by category within the labor force. For the past 15 years, satisfaction among blacks and other minorities has been lower than that for whites; and younger workers have been consistently less satisfied than older members of the labor force. Job dissatisfaction, however, can be attributed to the sometimes unrealistic expectations of the worker, as well as to the sometimes undesirable conditions existing in the workplace.

This finding illustrates a dilemma faced by many manpower programs. In striving to motivate enrollees to achieve success in the labor market, they may be creating unrealistic notions of what enrollees can be expected to achieve and of what is available in the job market.

For example, paying a public service employee a wage comparable to work in the public sector but out of line with pay for comparable work in the private sector will hinder transition efforts. And enrolling an unskilled youth in a 16-week training program will not magically transform him or her into a skilled craft worker able to command a high wage. In attempting to motivate clients to enroll, program operators should take care to see that they are not deluded by unrealistic expectations that will lead to dissatisfaction when a first potential job does not pay the wages the clients thought they could command in the outside labor market.

And although economic reward is the primary motivator that puts people to work (or that manpower programs use to get people to work), there are equally significant non-economic motivational factors which work experience programs should emphasize. They include the structure and stability of a daily schedule that provides supportive social relationships and a sense of identity and self-esteem. Properly designed work experience environments, even when minimum wages are paid for menial work, can create a new set of peer relationships and role models that have important consequences for the enrollees' self-image, motivation, and aspirations.

In short, the work experience enrollee can learn coping skills that include the entire process of resocialization: planning and self-management (e.g., skills necessary to get to work on time); knowing how to react to authority (e.g., traits helpful in avoiding violence or arguments on the job); and cooperation (e.g., working in group efforts and carrying out instructions). Purposeful, constructive traits can be, but often are not, learned in many life situations such as the family and school. People who are chronic failures in the job world often had unstable family and school experiences, which precluded their learning the traits necessary for success on the job. In effect, work experience provides a testing ground for enrollees to develop the necessary survival and behavioral skills to fit into the social environments of the world of work.

Of course, work experience programs cannot be a panacea for creating motivation in every enrollee, or enlightening all employers who hire, or ensuring good employment practices. But attitudes of employers and jobseekers can be explained—and they can be changed.

[2] Robert P. Quinn and Linda Shepard, *The 1972-73 Quality of Employment Survey* (Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, 1974).

[3] Robert P. Quinn, Graham L. Staines, and Margaret R. McCullough, *Job Satisfaction: Is there a Trend?* Manpower Research Monograph No. 30 (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, 1974), pp. 3-6.

4. ADVANTAGES OF A WORK EXPERIENCE STRATEGY

One of the inherent strengths of CETA is its potential for creative design of a service mix that is tailored by local prime sponsors to meet local labor needs. Within the range of available activity options, work experience models offer considerable advantages to local manpower planners. Different models with various components can be designed to meet the needs of jobseekers who have a variety of needs. These flexibly timed job-simulation program models can be constructed to target on many different population subgroups. In addition, they can effectively serve to balance coordination with other human service systems.

Advantages of Targeting in Flexible Models

It is not enough to proclaim that the local delivery system will assure equity and avoid "creaming" unless appropriate strategies are developed that guarantee that services reach those who need them. For example, skills training, whether strictly classroom or coupled with work experience, should be designed to meet identified occupational shortages in the community. However, skills training is expensive and frequently requires enrollees with educational levels that exceed the qualifications of a large segment of jobseekers. Shipfitters must be able to read and comprehend before they can work effectively with blueprints. Preapprentice electricians need a comfortable familiarity with basic math. Manpower experience has shown that functionally literate trainees can benefit sufficiently from training to obtain unsubsidized employment.

However, prime sponsors have found that there are jobseekers who are consistently shunned even by the programs with liberal entrance standards. Training in skill shortage occupations that require existing literacy skills obviously is not a solution for this group. Similarly, public service employment, because it is required to pay prevailing wages, may unwittingly exclude them in favor of more suitable jobseekers. Thus relatively high public service wages will attract more qualified candidates from the ranks of the unemployed, thereby increasing competition for these job slots. Those inexperienced jobseekers with lower educational levels will then be shut out.

On-the-job training, as appealing and effective as it is, may not be readily accepted by employers as a vehicle for many jobseekers who are unknown quantites or as a vehicle for client groups such as inexperienced youth, ex-offenders, the handicapped, and others who are traditionally identified as "bad risks" in the eyes of employers.

Work experience models, on the other hand, can provide an opportunity to more closely tailor employability development to the basic needs of the enrollee without screening out the enrollees because they do not meet minimum standards for the other less flexible strategies. At the same time, these enrollees can be prepared for production or service jobs where the demand is growing, where a proper "work orientation" is the best preparation, and where skills are more readily acquired on the job than in a classroom.

In the paragraphs that follow, brief case studies are given of actual enrollees, representing various client subgroups. Each illustrates common labor market handicaps that were successfully overcome through involvement in various types of work experience activities.

The drinker. George C., a high school graduate and veteran, was trained as a shipping and receiving clerk while in the Air Force. His service record and later civilian job history were good, but in his middle thirties, he acquired a drinking habit that resulted in his being fired from his job as inventory clerk with a large corporation. A period of unemployment and unsuccessful job search accompanied his deteriorating personal condition. Although he was technically employable, his growing dependency led him to the welfare department, where he received an emergency welfare grant.

Learning of the availability of a CETA-funded work experience program, he enrolled and simultaneously began participating in Alcoholics Anonymous. Though only temporary, the job security and support provided by work

experience and AA combined to stabilize George and enable him to again establish a solid work record. Six months of almost perfect attendance at his work experience assignment, coupled with an effective performance rating, gave this enrollee and his counselor what they needed to convince the former employer that he was worth the risk of rehiring.

Referral to a traditional-type classroom skills training program would not have been appropriate for this client. His need was not another occupational skill; rather, he needed a structured activity that would be supportive of his efforts to overcome his drinking problem and a work record that provided the concrete evidence to employers of his potential productivity.

The dropout. In sharp contrast to George C. is the case of Richard D., a dropout who at age 19 began to understand the impact of his functional illiteracy as an employment barrier. His lack of education was apparent enough so that he seldom got as far as a job interview, and he soon became so frustrated and stripped of self-confidence that he gave up the job search entirely. (This is typical of many discouraged jobseekers who lack the minimal skills to qualify for or to survive in a classroom or skills training program.) Even the idea of remedial education was so threatening to Richard that he would not consider the possibility. Fortunately, however, he was enrolled in a work experience program and was discovered to be highly work motivated, punctual, and willing to follow instructions and perform routine repetitive work that did not require an educational background.

While assigned as a laborer, he showed potential ability as a construction painter and liked the work. The program offered Richard an opportunity to discover and unlock a latent ability and interest that, in spite of his lack of education, made him a potentially valuable employee. Although he had formerly given up the job search and fallen back on his family and public assistance for support, the work experience program provided the opportunity that has led to steady work.

The ex-offender. Earl W. was a repeat offender who by the age of 30 had been in and out of the correctional system for the past ten years for a variety of serious offenses. Between 1967 and 1969, he graduated from two MDTA programs, one in auto mechanics and the other in carpentry, but he was never placed in a job because he had no actual hands-on work experience. What few skills he had acquired in the training programs were forgotten. Upon his most recent release from prison, he was channeled into a work experience program, which offered him an immediate alternative to recidivism, as well as a chance to build his self-confidence and to demonstrate by his work attendance that he could be a good risk to employers.

Despite his good attendance and performance, his basic insecurity and lack of self-confidence made him extremely reluctant to request job interviews or even to go to one once it was set up. He belived that employers would not want to hire him because of his prison record; therefore, there was little point in being interviewed for a job.

Extensive individual counseling and group sessions in job search workshops finally instilled a sense of confidence that enabled Earl to prepare a résumé, go to interviews with employers, and even openly discuss his prior criminal background with the interviewer. By learning to face his weaknesses and promote his assets (an outstanding six-month attendance record in his work experience assignment), he was able to secure a steady job.

The addict. Drug addiction was one of Earl's problems. Earl F. acquired the habit in Vietnam. At 29, he had not held a legitimate job since his discharge and had a record of minor offenses. Although he was on methodone maintenance and had a negative work attitude at the outset of enrollment, the prospect of a work experience opportunity leading to a permanent job with the "city" created a marked change in his view toward work. Signs of improvement prompted his assignment to a postition as supervisor of a group of summer yourth corps workers. This recognition and his new-found job status as group leader developed a new sense of self-worth, which was reinforced in the job search workshops.

Careful planning and preparation for a job interview resulted in his placement with a manufacturing firm at $2.50 an hour. His demonstrated ability to perform on the work experience assignment while on methodone maintenance was evidence to the prospective employer that he was a good risk. Two weeks later, he was rewarded with a raise to $3.50 an hour and a promising future with the company.

The teenage mother. Cynthia H.'s high school education was interrupted by her pregnancy at age 17. She and her two children were supported by welfare for seven years until, at the age of 25, she voluntarily applied for a CETA-funded work experience program at the public housing project where she resided. This CETA program, open only to residents of high-rise public housing, provided security guard work experience and was coupled with related education and training at a local college.

The program (more fully described in chapter 7) successfully achieved its goal of reducing crime and vandalism in the housing project by assigning resident trainees, primarily women (who understand the problems and hardships of high-rise living and who also have a vested interest in achieving a safe, respectable environment in which to raise their families) to positions as guards.

In addition to providing substantial benefits to her community, Cynthia earned her high school equivalency diploma in the 12-month program and achieved a work record that led to a permanent job with the local housing authority, where she now earns over $8,000 annually. Cynthia broke the welfare cycle and now, totally self-sufficient, is a taxpayer and not a tax burden. She has purchased a car and is now enrolled in an associate of arts degree program in law enforcement at a local college.

Obviously, there are also many participants whom work

experience programs fail to help. Some persons lack the minimum amount of maturity needed to benefit from the experience. Also, work experience programs cannot entirely compensate for other forces that grip the lives of enrollees — such as negative influences of dominant peer groups, broken homes, lack of role models to reinforce the work ethic, overpowering drug habits, and alcoholism. These influences are more than additive: they interact with each other and can present a seemingly insurmountable barrier to some enrollees and the programs designed to assist them. Program design must be sensitive to enrollees' personal problems and include services that comprehensively address these problems, in addition to those directly related to employment.

Advantage of "Work Simulation"

Manpower planners and operators at the local level are familiar with the employers' refrain: send me "motivated" workers who get to work on time; who show up on Monday, as well as Friday; and who have good work habits. Experience has shown that employers are more likely to tolerate an employee's lack of training than lack of "work orientation." In many instances, skills can be aquired on the job, but jobseekers must bring a work orientation with them.

Unfortunately, many traditional classroom training efforts suffer from an enrollee's failure to recognize that *learning to work is as critical as learning a skill.* Substantial training resources are often wasted on enrollees who discover, or admit only after completing costly training programs, that they cannot or do not want to submit to the hours, wages, working conditions, or requirements of that particular occupation. Even enrollees who desire to work may nevertheless lack the work orientation and survival skills needed to successfully obtain and retain their jobs.

All manpower activities, paritcularly those that take place outside a work setting, should simulate in every possible aspect the conditions and expectations of unsubsidized employment. Traditional classroom training can be tailored to simulate the workplace by providing periods of "hands on" work experience at a public or nonprofit worksite; by substituting a weekly or biweekly wage system for the allowance payment and thereby condititoning enrollees to their inescapable responsibilities to have income taxes and Social Security retirement withheld; by "docking" enrollee wages for time missed; and by establishing workplace roles, such as supervisor, work leader, and so forth, in the training environment.

A primary advantage of work experience programs is that they offer relatively controlled environments, which provide work conditions, work expectations, and rewards similiar to those encountered in the unsubsidized world of work. Work experience can be a testing ground — a place to reveal attitudes, interests, abilities and problems that might never surface in a session with a screener, counselor, or job placement specialist. Problems that staff members fail to identify at intake or referral may be quickly manifested the first day on a job. It is far better that the worksite environment that uncovers these problems is a work experience laboratory over which there is some measure of control, rather than a private employer whose goodwill is essential for the delivery system and a worker's future success.

Advantage of "Leveraging": Work Experience's Impact on Other Human Service Systems

With the flexibility inherent in CETA, well-designed work experience program models can have impact on other delivery systems and community structures, with the result that better total service is given to the community. Two of the systems most compatible to interfaced designs, for example, are the educational system and the correctional system, both serving the client populations of great concern to the manpower planner. Program models with a strong experimental learning component can be targeted to motivate truants to stay in school or can be designed for dropouts, motivating them to return to school and explore vocational careers. Both models give sponsors the opportunity to involve school systems in new curriculum design, new counseling techniques, and so on. Other program models targeted to serve youthful offenders can be used to bring leverage on the criminal justice system to consider manpower diversion as an alternative to immediate prosecution. Thus, mutually desirable social and community goals — i.e., prevention of truancy, reduction in dropout rates, career oriented labor force, reduction in incarceration — can be approached by interagency planning, coupled with work experience opportunities for the clients of multiple delivery systems.

5. EVOLUTION OF WORK EXPERIENCE

Manpower programs, as we know them today, represent a relatively recent stage in the evolution of governmental intervention in society's problems. These manpower programs are the legislative culmination of a number of political, social, and economic forces that converged during the 1960's.[4] The programs spawned many questions and some answers that are relevent today. To be sure, some prime sponsors have rejected sound aspects of categorical programs on no other basis than the premise that change is progress.

Other prime sponsors have continued, virtually unchanged, the same categorical programs that operated prior to CETA. But many, perhaps most, prime sponsors have sought to combine the best aspects of the categorical experiences with the more flexible possibilities offered by the CETA system. The following section highlights the purpose and design of some of these categorical models and a few lessons they provide to prime sponsors today.[5]

Neighborhood Youth Corps—In School

The Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) in-school program, authorized by the Economic Opportunity Act (EOA) of 1964, was designed to encourage in-school disadvantaged youth, aged 14 to 21, to remain in school and to provide them with the basic work experiences that would increase their chances for employment when they entered the labor market. Youth identified as potential dropouts were provided with part-time jobs up to 15 hours per week for which they were paid the federal minimum wage.

The NYC program was not without its critics as well as avid supporters. Perhaps the most objective and balanced view has been expressed by Levitan, Mangum, and Marshall, who maintain that, although NYC was:

> ...ostensibly justified as a route to employability, it is primarily income maintenance accompanied by a minimum of useful activity. This does not mean that it is not desirable, only that it should be approached more honestly. Poor youth need income and something at which to keep busy as a bridge between school employment and work or to help them at a vulnerable age when employment opportunities may be scarce...The tendency over the years has been for the quality of the work experience to improve and the accompaniment of basic education to grow. There is evidence that the Neighborhood Youth Corps makes a positive contribution to employability.[6]

Evaluation findings are in disagreement about the effectiveness of the NYC in-school program. An early study of the program in Cincinnati and Detroit in 1966 concluded that "no evidence emerged that demonstrated that NYC participation affected basic attitues..." and "there was not a single important finding that clearly or consistently favored NYC participants over the control youths."[7] Yet caution should be used in generalizing these findings. NYC was still a young program in 1966, and the two cities in the study may not be representative.

In contrast, a more comprehensive and somewhat later nationwide study by Somers and Stromsdorfer, based on a sample of 60 in-school and summer NYC projects operated fiscal 1966 and fiscal 1967, found that significant monetary benefits accured to NYC in-school participants.[8] "The average NYC participant earned a total of $231 more than his comparison group counterpart in the year and a half average period after the NYC participant left the program."[9]

However, a "bare bones" work experience program that provides only the job may not be the most effective route to permanent employability for disadvantaged youth. More effective are programs that tailor the educational and work components to complement one another and reinforce

[4] See Sar A. Levitan, Garth L. Mangum, and Ray Marshall, *Human Resources and Labor Markets* (New York: Harper & Row, 1976) for an excellent description of the evolution of manpower programs.

[5] For a more detailed review of manpower research, see the R&D Monograph Series, U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration (formerly Manpower Administration), especially *Neighborhood Youth Corps: A Review of Research*, Monograph No. 13 (1970).

[6] Levitan, Mangum, and Marshall, op.cit., p. 351.

[7] Gerald O. Robin, "The In-School Neighborhood Youth Corps Program," *Evaluation*, vol. 2, No. 1, 1974

[8] Gerald G. Somers and Ernest W. Stromsdorfer, "A Cost-Effectiveness Analysis of In-School and Summer Neighborhood Youth Corps: A Nationwide Evaluation," *Journal of Human Resources*, vol. 7, No. 4, Fall 1972.

[9] Ibid., p. 451.

them with counseling, job search, and placement workshops. The reader is referred to a detailed survey and analysis of innovative in-school NYC programs done in 1972, describing the necessary elements of an effective program, their relative importance, and the means of their successful implementation.[10]

Neighborhood Youth Corps--Out of School

The NYC out-of-school program, like the in-school program, was established under the provisions of EOA of 1964. However, the target group was the high school dropout population rather than the in-school potential dropout. Operated in its early years as a "no frills" work experience program, the out-of school program was regarded by its sympathetic critics as an "aging vat"; that is, a holding action for youth until they are matured into adulthood, at which time they would become employable and be absorbed into the work force.[11]

This view, however, has been disputed by researchers who found that substantial gains in earnings accrued to NYC participants and these gains increased as the participants remained in the program for longer periods of time:

> The longer a youth has participated in the program, the more likely he is to have learned such desirable traits as getting to work on time, reporting regularly for work, neatness in appearance, ability to communicate with middle class persons, ability to accept supervision, and ability to accept responsibility. These basic prerequisites for getting and keeping a job are often missing in the high school dropout from a poor family. In addition, we believe that the longer an individual is in the program, the more acceptable he becomes to major employers. Employers who invest in training their employees want to mininimize their turnover. Long-term participation in the NYC program may be considered by these employers to be an indication of stability.[12]

In 1970, the NYC program was modified because it was felt that work experience alone had little positive impact on employability. (The Borus research was not published until the spring of 1970.) NYC-2, as the redesigned program was called, limited enrollment to 16- and 17-year old dropouts, deemphasized work experience, strengthened supportive services, and added classroom components such as training and remedial education.

A comprehensive study of NYC-1 and NYC-2 in four cities "indicated that the redesigned NYC-2 was not significantly more effective in improving the employability of its enrollees than the predecessor program, NYC-1. Indeed, NYC-2 study results suggested that the redesigned program may have been less effective."[13] More devastating was the finding that there were no significant differences between the employment outcomes of the experimental and the control groups. The primary reasons given in this study for failure of the NYC-2 design were twofold: (1) A lack of dedicated and competent staff in the program's later years and (2) a lack of successful enrollee role models and a concentration of poorly motivated trainees due to restrictions on enrollment to 16- and 17-year-old disadvantaged dropouts.

Several other program implications of the research are worth noting. First, it was found that educational achievement also had little impact on eventual employability unless supplemented with skills training and effective job development and placement efforts, the latter elements having the greatest impact on the enrollee's employability. Second, it was found that counseling, which had no effect on reversing employability patterns, cannot alone carry the burden of a manpower program.

As Walther and Magnusson observed:

> Manpower programs have been consistently unsuccessful in generating motivation when none exists. The trick is to nurture motivation when it does occur, and a crucial element in doing this is to develop a program atmosphere and a history of success...Our research suggests the paradox that program administration may be doing a disservice to the very clients they want to serve if they follow selection and retention policies which overload the program with poorly motivated and low-achieving enrollees. The training objectives of these programs might be better served if the training group included some older, succeding youth and if, provided that the opportunity for reenrollment is kept open to the poorly motivated enrollee to be used whenver he is ready, adequate performance is required for the youth to stay in the program.[14]

This study further documents, not only the seriousness of the employment problems of youthful dropouts, but also the difficulty of successfully dealing with those problems. Greater emphasis on skills training, job development, and placement efforts will also have limited results if there are insufficient jobs.

An isolated example of an encouraging NYC model, in Cincinnati,[15] was identified by the research. It alternated initial training and classroom assignments with private sector work experience. Work supervisors gave enrollment ratings indicating strengths and weaknesses that were addressed in subsequent classroom sessions prior to reassignment to another worksite. Alternation of work and classroom assignments continued until the enrollee was ready for, and placed in, full-time unsubsidized employment. A somewhat similar public sector model currently operated in Baltimore is described in chapter 7.

[10] *In-School Youth Manpower. A Guide to Local Strategies and Methods* (Lansing, Mich. Systems Research Incorporated, 1973). Available from National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Va. 22151.

[11] Sar A. Levitan, *Neighborhood Youth Corps, Examination of the War on Poverty*, Staff and Consultant's Report, vol. 1: (Washington: Subcommittee on Employment, Manpower and Poverty Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, U.S. Senate, 90th Cong., 1st Sess., 1967).

[12] Michael E. Borus, John P. Brennan, and Sydney Rosen, "A Benefit-Cost Analysis of the Neighborhood Youth Corps: The Out-of-School Program in Indiana," *Journal of Human Resources*, Spring 1970.

[13] Regis H. Walther and Margaret L. Magnusson, *A Longitudinal Study of Selected Out-of-School NYC-2 Programs in Four Cities*, Manpower Research Project (Washington: George Washington University, June 1975), p. 125.

[14] Ibid., p. xxii.

[15] Regis H. Walther and Margaret L. Magnusson, *A Study of the Effectiveness of Selected Out of School Neighborhood Youth Corps Programs: The Cincinnati Clerical Co-op: A Formal Training Program* (Washington: George Washington University, April 1969).

Summer Neighborhood Youth Corps

The largest of all categorical programs, in terms of persons served and dollars spent, was also notable as the program that had the least planning or evaluation. Since the summer NYC program was usually funded in June at the 11th hour to avert threatened disturbances in the cities in the summer, there was little time for serious planning for meaningful work activities for the majority of youth served.

The consequences often were negative job experiences, which perhaps kept the city's youth busy but nevertheless defeated the developmental potential of the program by reinforcing bad work habits and unrealistic ideas of employers' expectations in the real world of work.

Last-minute funding often discouraged the necessary advance planning needed to develop worksites, recruit enrollees, implement and monitor the program, and evaluate its results. Nevertheless, summer work experience models offer great potential for employability development. (See chapter 6 for a planning model that successfully incorporates the necessary elements.)

Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector

Originally initiated in 11 cities in 1971 as a one-year pilot program, Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector (VEPS) was designed as a career exploration and training program for 16-year-old in-school NYC enrollees who were potential dropouts. The main departure from the regular NYC program was that VEPS enrollees were placed at private sector work stations and received intensive counseling. NYC paid a portion of enrollee wages. The purpose of this joint effort of the Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare and the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) was to reduce the high school dropout rate, upgrade the skill level of youth entering the labor market, and provide a private sector environment in which to promote transition from school to work. The apparent success of the project in the first year resulted in the program's expansion to 11 other selected cities in 1972.

Findings from research conducted by Spengel and Tomey in the pilot cities revealed a significant positive impact on the reduction of absenteeism and dropout rates and improvement in the academic performances of participants.[16] In addition, enrollees had significantly fewer incidents with school authorities and the police than in previous years.

Ultimately, enrollees in the VEPS program in its first year had an impressive positive outcome rate, as shown below:

Outcome	*Percent*
Remained at VEPS employer	37.2
Other private sector work	4.3
Higher education	6.2
Return to NYC	20.9
Networking	4.3
Military	2.3
VEPS-II	22.9
Other	1.9

Several lessons provided by the VEPS experience have particular application to CETA policy at the national and local levels. First, the success and experience of the VEPS program dispel the notion that wages paid to enrollees in private sector worksites are a subsidy that should be prohibited. In fact, employers not only failed to get rich by by these limited wage subsidies, but viewed the subsidy as only a partial offset to significant extraordinary costs they incurred in providing part-time work experience and career exploration to disadvantaged youth. Safeguards can be designed to prevent abuse of the wage subsidy.

Second, the VEPS program was found to be a supplement to cooperative work study programs operated by local school systems in which the students are paid by private employers from their own funds. Although they are an effective asset, these work study programs often exclude all but the better, apparently low-risk students. Third, a VEPS model provided exposure to a broad range of job opportunities in the private sector which many youth would never have imagined, much less gained access to. Indeed, results of the study showed that for a substantial proportion of enrollees, VEPS eventually led to permanent employment with the private employer.

A fourth lesson demonstrated by VEPS was the importance of having a program staff that a private employer could turn to for aid when a problem concerning the enrollees arose on the job. This backup capability was a great source of reassurance to the employer and was a necessity for the enrollees' successful transition from school to work.

Under CETA, the VEPS concept is getting a fresh look through the Title III (nationally) funded programs. In the summer of 1976, a limited demonstration was carried out in nine cities with NAB and the Human Resource Development Institute (HRDI), AFL-CIO, as sponsoring organizations. This effort was considerably expanded for summer 1977, and prime sponsors are encouraged to develop local VEPS programs with summer Title III dollars. Interpretations of the legislation preclude the use of this strategy in Title I activities. Given the serious youth crisis in the labor market and the limited opportunity for formal transition of youth from school to work, prime sponsors might look to the new youth initiatives programs as a possible legislative and financial resource to fund expanded VEPS models.

[16] David P. Spengel and E. Allan Tomey, *Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector: Final Report and Assessment, 1971-72* (St. Louis, Mo.: Center for Urban Programs, St. Louis University, February 1973).

Cooperative Education, Work Study, and Other Educational Programs

A variety of school affiliated work experience programs are funded by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) and administered by secondary schools and institutions of higher education. In 1968, amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 authorized funding to create Cooperative Education and Work Study programs for high school vocational students. Part-time work experience under the cooperative education program is provided by private sector employers to complement classroom vocational instruction. Wages are paid by the employer.

Work Study programs such as the In-School Neighborhood Youth Corps operated under MDTA include wage subsidies. Cooperative education programs, in some areas called distributive education, depend on voluntary employer participation for available job slots. The Higher Education Act of 1965 authorized work study programs at the college level. The college level work study program provides part-time work during the school year and full-time work in the summer to college students in financial need. Some prime sponsors have successfully intergrated this program into their CETA-funded system by employing college work study participants in staff activities, particularly youth programs. Employers, such as CETA prime sponsors, pay 20 percent of the wage cost, with the remaining 80 percent paid for by the eligible student's college with HEW funds.

The college cooperative education program, like the program at the secondary level, tries to place students in jobs related to their course of study, and wages are paid in full by the employer.

Another HEW program model, usually sponsored locally by vocational rehabilitation agencies, is the sheltered workshop. Primarily for handicapped individuals, the sheltered workshop provides paid jobs, with the work often performed under subcontract to local employers. A drawback is that pay is often less than the minimum wage, and training is in marginally marketable areas. However, the workshop is an opportunity to provide "work adjustment," that is, a systematic process using "individual and group work or work-related activities to (1) assist individuals to understand the meaning, value, and demands of work, (2) modify or develop appropriate attitudes, personal characteristics, and work behavior, and (3) develop functional capacities."[17]

Operation Mainstream

In 1966, the Economic Opportunity Act was amended to to provide a relatively small-scale job creation program for chronically unemployed adults. Operation Mainstream was oriented primarily toward the older population, having its largest success in rural areas. It paid enrollees a minimum wage and provided supplemental basic education, counseling, supportive services, and, in some cases, skills training.

An 11-month study of Operation Mainstream, commissioned by the Department of Labor and conducted by Kirschner Associates, Inc.,[18] found that when it functioned in accordance with the Congressional mandate, the program was effective in meeting the employment and income needs of its enrollees.

However, the study also noted that the experience of Operation Mainstream to date indicates that more valuable and lasting aspects of the program can be expected from serving the poor and elderly persons and their communities than from focusing program efforts on permanent job placement of enrollees.[19]

In the survey of 53 Operation Mainstream projects and 3,300 participants, there was found to be a high degree of job satisfaction and well-being while in the program, but little carried over to those who left the program. The study suggested that, in a time of more nearly full employment, when the demand for labor is high, the marginal skill improvement gained in Mainstream might be successful in placing these chronically unemployed poor persons in jobs.[20]

Operation Mainstream was subjected to considerable criticism for having a relatively low palcement rate, and the program did not adequately serve its prime target population when the emphasis changed to training and placement in nonsubsidized jobs.

This dilemma must be kept in mind by employment and training practitioners when planning and evaluating work experience programs. Pressures to achieve unattainable goals for a difficult target population may encourage switching to population groups that more easily satisfy imposed performance goals.

New Careers

Another innovative program funded under the Economic Opportunity Act, as amended in 1967, was New Careers. Its purpose was to place the disadvantaged in newly created jobs in public and nonprofit agencies to perform those repetitive and other tasks requiring less skill that were previously performed by professionals. The professionals thereby gained more time to extend their productivity to tasks requiring greater skills, as well as time to provide training to the New Careers enrollees. More importantly, the enrollees with work experience and re-

[17] Ellen Scarcy, *Work Experience as Preparation for Adulthood* (Washington: George Washington University, May 1973), p. 32.

[18] *National Evaluation of Operation Mainstream* (three reports) (Albuquerque, N.Mex: Kirschner Associates, Inc. 1971).

[19] Ibid., p. 562.

[20] Ibid., p. 663.

lated classroom training were able to advance through a newly developed career ladder within the agency.

One problem, however, was that the dual career ladders sometimes caused morale difficulties among regular employees working in the same environment, who felt that they had no access to the career ladder fashioned for the New Careers enrollees. This problem was resolved in places where the agency developed a single, more comprehensive career ladder and opened it to all employees.

Despite its apparent success, the New Careers program, referred to as the "Cadillac" of manpower development strategies, received criticism from high levels within the Department of Labor for its high unit costs. At the same time, it was also criticized by the program's original creators and proponents, who felt that the program did not go far enough in developing and achieving institutional change and creating more extensive career ladders in the sponsoring agencies.

An important feature of the program, responsible for many successful outcomes, was that the work experience itself was in the agency and in the job that was hoped to be the enrollees' permanent place of employment. The awareness of this prospect was a great motivating source for the enrollee and helped create an important sense of commitment to training and supervision on the part of the host agency.

Supported Employment

As previously mentioned, the work experience strategy has not been limited solely to youthful clients. Supported employment, like sheltered work, is a concept aimed at providing low-stress, temporary jobs to hard-to-employ adults in order to aid their transition into the regular labor market. Needy adult target populations, such as ex-addicts, ex-offenders, the physically handicapped, and former public assistance recipients, confronted with substantial personal and institutional barriers to employment, need an opportunity to develop or demonstrate good work habits and establish a credible, stable, and continuous history of employment.

Supported work demonstration programs have been established under the auspices of the Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (MDRC) with the support of five federal agencies and the Ford Foundation.

> Supported work programs are an outgrowth of the "sheltered work" concept, developed in the Netherlands, Sweden, and England, to provide subsidized employment and a sense of self-worth to handicapped people who were unable to find jobs....Thus, the work environment that is created is one of lowered, but graduated stresses.[21]

Although the work environment is partially sheltered, productivity standards, discipline, discharge, and merit increase procedures are built in to simulate the world of work and stimulate the worker. The paycheck is also an important ingredient of work simulation, and jobs corporations attempt to divert transfer payments and other sources of funds into wage pools that can be translated into wages for work performed, rather than gifts for idleness. According to Robinson:

> The sponsors of the program seem to have few illusions about the difficulties of their task. "There are no easy or total solutions to problems involving the class of people we are talking about. At best, we can hope to chip away at the problem, chip away at five or ten percent of it a year. We are doing very well in contrast to the fact that nothing else seems to be achieving anything of significance with this population."[22]

A longitudinal evalutation of supported employment is now being undertaken by MDRC to determine whether it indeed does make a difference in the long-term earnings and employment experience of participants.

[21] David Robinson, "Supported Work: The Hard-to-Employ Earn a Paycheck and Avoid Welfare," *World of Work Report* (Scarsdale, N.Y.: Work in America Institute, Inc., July 1976), p. 1.

[22] Ibid., p. 4.

6. MODEL BUILDING: CRITICAL PROGRAM DESIGN

Much of the discussion thus far has addressed work experience as a useful component in a set of local manpower options as it pertains to those who are involved in it, why they are involved, what it entails, and where it is conducted. In this and the following chapter, the focus switches to some suggested ways in which it can be done. This chapter describes some key steps in the program planning process, as well as crucial program elements to be considered in designing work experience programs:

1. Sharply focus the program design. (What is to be accomplished? Why is this activity being planned and funded?)
2. Target the client groups to be served, and appropriately design the program content. (Will it serve the elderly, the handicapped, the ex-offender, the dropout? What impact does this decision have on subsequent program format and content?)
3. Develop an evaluation and assessment design. (How will the program be measured? What will its success be? What will the prime sponsor accept as cost-effective?)
4. Determine the overall administrative structure in support of the activity. (Will it be subcontracted? What will be the relationship among the various program elements —for example, (a) client access system, (b) monitoring of service delivery, (c) performance contracting, (d) worksite selection system, and (e) payment system?)
5. Develop a realistically scheduled plan for implementation. (When does recruitment start? Who certifies eligibility? Are worksites lined up? When does supervisory training begin?)

Putting a Program Design into Focus: Establishing Program Objectives

The overall policy goals of increased and successful client labor force participation, expanded services delivery, and improved linkages among human service systems can be approached through the prime sponsor's careful design of a work experience type of program.

Accountability is fundamental to CETA, and proper goal identification is the linchpin of accountability. Prime sponsors should constantly ask of each program design what it is they seek to accomplish, how it is measured, and what was achieved. For example, recent followup studies of local programs provide substantial evidence that a variety of subgroups (minority youth, handicapped, offenders, older workers, long-term unemployed) need and profit from an experiential learning environment in order to gain the confidence, the conditioning, and the track record to enter and remain in the labor force. If the "experiential learning lab" (or, in more colloquial terms, work experience site) is in a public or nonprofit agency, an added or low-cost spinoff is the additional service provided to the local community during the training period. Moreover, if there is recognition that "youth jobs should be considered part of the educational process and linked with it" as Mangum contends,[23] there is ample opportunity to develop creative linkages with a key human service delivery system — the schools.

How these objectives of increased youth labor force attachment, increased public services, and linkage with the educational system can be achieved is best seen through a review of some of the operational program models described in chapter 7. For instance, in the design of the Baltimore Harbor City Learning Center, a program targeted to serve dropouts, the decision was made by the prime sponsor to contract with the local school district for the operation of the program for the specific purpose of introducing institutional change and coordinating with resources and responsibilities of the educational system.

First, the school system, as the contractor, made a commitment to reenroll and serve dropouts, which in and of itself was a reversal of past policy and a significant indicator of institutional change. Second, the school system agreed to explore and develop with prime sponsor assistance an alternative curriculum based on work ex-

[23] Garth Mangum, *Employability, Employment, and Income* (Salt Lake City: Olympus Publishing Company, 1976), p. 258.

perience. Third, and perhaps most importantly, the school system agreed to commit local resources in increasing amounts to the operations and expansion of the program. Finally, while the enrollees were engaged in self-discovery through carefully designed vocational exploration tracks, they were at the same time expanding the delivery of health, business, communication, and social services to the community.

Designing program models to meet multiple manpower policy objectives is complex, but prime sponsors are rapidly learning how.

Selecting the Client Subgroups To Be Served and Adjusting Program Content

In the descriptions of various program models in the next chapter, it can be seen that the needs of a great variety of client groups can be addressed through a similar variety of work experience programs,coupled with other training and service activities. The decision to focus on a particular client group will dictate other key program elements. For example, a work experience program that targets on recently released offenders *should* include individualized and group counseling, instruction in job search techniques, self-awareness training, remedial education, and supportive services, coupled with the actual work experience.

Program content should vary with the needs of the clients selected for service. Work experience program models directed at youth might include career counseling, rotating opportunities for vocational exploration in both the public and private sectors, development of work values, training for effective parenting, and continuing educational support. These elements can be successfully meshed with the work experience opportunity so that they reinforce each other.

With the allocation of funds provided under the Carter Administration's new youth initiatives, there will be ample opportunities for prime sponsors to forge these components into effective local manpower activities. In addition, work experience program models, when coupled with skills training, can be designed to serve an even wider segment of manpower clients. Although it is widely acknowledged that the tools at hand to assess these needs are imprecise, inadequate, and highly fallible, there are ways of assessing local labor market needs in terms specific enough for program content development. The Labor Market Advisory Committee (LMAC) concept introduced by the Work Incentive (WIN) program can prove a valuable mechanism for the involvement of local business, organized labor, and educators in manpower activities, *if their tasks are sufficiently focused.*

Before linking specific occupational training with work experience, prime sponsors would be well advised to convene an LMAC-type group that consists of the major area employers and unions involved in the occupation, as well as the appropriate vocational education trainers, for the purpose of assessing the need for additional workers.

Second, a clear understanding of the skill requirements of employers is needed. The LMAC should be encouraged to suggest and help establish the curriculum standards for the skills training component. Employers usually recommend that this curriculum be supplemented by offsite work experience, complete with time clocks, hard hats, and muddy underfootings where similar conditions are encountered on the job. After LMAC approval, this curriculum should become part of any contractual document or statement of work.

Third, there should be a method for ascertaining skills acquisition. The technical expertise of the LMAC should be, and has been, effectively marshaled to "certify" skills development in accordance with contractual requirements.

Creative use of labor market information and, particularly, the LMAC can do much to bridge the gap between the public and private sectors of the economy, as well as improve the credibility of the employment and training system through realistic program content.

Developing an Assessment Design

Local prime sponsors should attempt to translate overall policy goals into more specific outcome objectives that are measurable and that may be translated into performance contracts. Although the long-range goal of some program models serving youth may be to increase successful labor force participation of former dropouts, the shorter term measurable objectives may be improvements in enrollment rates, attendance rates, retention, behavioral change, academic progress, and satisfactory worksite employer assessments.

Similarly, the measurable objectives of a work experience model directed at in-school youth might be the reduction of truancy, increased skills development, or simply income maintenance to stay in school.

In a program model that couples classroom training with related work experience in an alternating or sequential pattern, measurable objectives may be enrollment, retention, and skills acquisition, followed by training-related unsubsidized job placement at prescribed wage rates. A program model that focuses on transition from the criminal justice system to the labor force should include measurable objectives relating to length of enrollment, rearrest rates, reconviction rates, unsubsidized job placement rates, and placement wages.

Obviously these measurable objectives reflect program focus and client groups selected for targeting. However, methods by which success or failure of the program model is to be measured should be part of the initial design. And as prime sponsors learn more about the techniques of cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analysis, they will begin to analyze their manpower system and its components to assign cost factors to each measurable objective.

Administrative Components

A responsive administrative system must be conceptualized and in place to provide a firm framework for program planning, program implementation (either directly or through contracting), and program monitoring and evaluation. The same administrative structure does not work equally well for all prime sponsors. Some prime sponsors serve only as planners, monitors, and evaluators and do not directly operate activities. Other prime sponsors administer and operate all service delivery components, while still others combine elements of both — contracting for some services and delivering others while maintaining planning, monitoring, and evaluation responsibility for the entire system.

In addition to the traditional components of every administrative structure, it is suggested that thought be directed toward specific components of that structure as they affect all program models, particularly the access of clients to the model, monitoring service delivery, performance contracting, the worksite selection system, and the payment system.

The Access System

One of the first elements to be considered in designing a delivery system or a progeam model is "access." How do clients find out about resources? How are the target groups reached? Will there be a closed access system (e.g., outreach and intake limited to 45 clients for 45 slots) or an open system that offers a range of manpower services to all applicants, followed by appropriate referrals to specific program activities made for that pool?

Whatever the method used, prime sponsors find it to their distinct advantage to have a clear, well-defined, well-understood system of access to manpower resources. Whether the access system is contracted to the State employment service, community-based organizations, or a combination of these and other agencies, a clear contractual statement of work, including effective performance indicators, is essential. This arrangement should be augmented by an ongoing public information program so that other human service systems (education, social service, criminal justice, aging) understand how to make a "connection" for their clients.

Monitoring Service Delivery

The administrative machinery must include a structured monitoring mechanism, not only for compliance purposes but also to keep the system "moving." Experience has shown that manpower systems (like other systems) function best when all components recognize they "sink or swim" together. Adversary relationships are nonproductive and energy depleting. In Seattle, Chicago, Baltimore, and many other areas, prime sponsors have successfully developed, as part of their administrative structure, in-house program managers (or monitors or analysts). These people troubleshoot, give technical assistance to subcontractors, clarify local and national administrative policy, and monitor fiscal and programmatic contract performance.

Performance Contracting

In a continuing effort to fine-tune the system, local manpower administrators have devoted considerable attention to the contractual document that implements each program activity. Most prime sponsors had little or no pre-CETA experience with manpower contracting. The expertise of municipal purchasing agents was unrelated to these new demands. Indeed, no one foresaw or prepared for the technical assistance needed by new prime sponsors to develop a contractual instrument for manpower activities that was clear, understandable, and enforceable and, most importantly, would assure results.

Some excerpts from sample contracts of two work experience programs that are combined with skills training graphically illustrate how prime sponsors can integrate service to selected target groups, increase labor force attachment by training to meet local labor market needs, combine elements of skills training with work experience, and tie reimbursement to achievement of agreed-upon objectives.

Combining Work Experience with Construction Training

1. *Goals and objectives:* To increase minority participation in apprenticeable construction trades.
2. *Selection of appropriate contractor:* Trade association of construction contractors.
3. *Program content:*
   a. The following occupation areas will have two training cycles of 22 weeks (dates supplied) —
      1) Insulation.
      2) Sheet metal.
      3) Plumbing.
      4) Electrical.
   b. During the early part of each cycle, enrollees will participate in formal instruction that is related to the basic skills required for apprenticeship entry.
   c. As part of the training, each enrollee will spend equal time in a cooperative field placement, after which his or her work experience will be evaluated by the worksite supervisor.
   d. Staff will monitor cooperative field placement to ensure that enrollees are engaged in appropriate training-related activities.
4. *Number of clients to be served:* Agreed-upon number: 140
5. *Entry-level skills of clients:*
   a. Upon entry into the program, each enrollee will have a minimum reading grade level of 7.5 and a min-

imum math grade level of 7.5.

b. No more than a reading or math grade level of 10.5, based on agreed test measurements, is allowed.

6. *Referrals from local access system:*
   a. The subcontractor will adhere to the referral procedures designated by the prime sponsor in allocation of slots to manpower service centers.
   b. Any exceptions must receive the prior approval of the prime sponsor.
7. *Use of the Manpower Management Information System (MMIS):*
   a. The subcontrtactor will record all pertinent transactions by means of the MMIS.
   b. The policies and procedures (subject to periodic revision) stated in the MMIS user's manual are an enforceable part of this contract.
   c. The MMIS reports will be the source for all enrollment and job placement statistics.
8. *Performance criteria:*
   a. At least 75 percent of the paid enrollment level in each cycle will have a cumulative attendance rate of 85 percent at the start of the tenth week of training.
   b. At least 65 percent of the paid enrollment level in each cycle will complete training and will receive a diploma from the trade association.
   c. All enrollees receiving a diploma will be placed with a trade association member company and will be registered by that company in an approved apprenticeship program, with formal notification of such action to the prime sponsor.
9. *Line-item budget:* Agreement made by local agencies involved (see item 10 below).
10. *Total budget translated into agreed payment plan benchmarks* (i.e., enrollment, tenth-week retention, completion, registered apprenticeship): The negotiated line-item budget of $255,599 to serve 140 enrollees was translated into a performance contract with a payment plan established to help ensure program goals; for example —
    a. Tuition payment of $475 per enrollee as verified by receipt of an appropriate MMIS form.
    b. The amount of $633 per enrollee for achieving the retention level stipulated.
    c. The amount of $487 per enrollee for meeting the requirements for "graduate" as defined in the "Definition of Terms" and verified by the receipt of an MMIS form.
    d. The amount of $487 per enrollee for being registered as an apprentice in an approved apprenticeship program with formal notification to the prime sponsor by the subcontractor.

Combining Secretarial Science with Work Experience

1. *Program content:*
   a. At the end of 12 weeks trainees who meet midpoint standards will be placed on a worksite, thereafter alternating between classroom training and work experience for the remaining 12 weeks.
   b. An increase in wages of 10 cents per hour will be awarded to enrollees who at the midpoint reach the required skill standards as described in this contract and are assigned to a worksite for related work experience.
2. Performance criteria:
   a. At the end of 12 weeks, 80 percent of the original enrollment class will type a minimum of 10 words per minute above entry-level wpm on the midpoint test (three error cutoff).
   b. Of the original enrollment class at the end of 24 weeks, 75 percent will type 45 wpm on end of cycle test (three-error cutoff).
   c. Of the enrollees in class 1, 75 percent will take shorthand at a rate of 80 wpm for 3 minutes, with 90 percent accuracy on end of cycle test.
   d. Of the enrollees in class 2, 75 percent will transcribe a one-minute letter from dictating machine with 90 percent accuracy on end of cycle test.
   e. Of the original enrollment, 75 percent will be placed in training-related unsubsidized jobs. Placement responsibility rests with the subcontractor.
   f. The average placement wage will be at least $3.00 per hour.
   g. The average daily attendance of enrollees will be at least 88 percent.
3. *Line-item budget:* Agreement made by local agencies involved (see item 4 below).
4. *Total budget translated into agreed payment plan benchmarks* (i.e., enrollment, 12-week progress, graduation, training-related unsubsidized job placement): The negotiated line-item budget of $155,484 to serve 96 enrollees was translated into a performance contract with a payment plan that reinforces program objectives; for example —
   a. Enrollment payment of $481 per enrollee as verified by receipt of MMIS form.
   b. Payment of $609 per enrollee who successfully reaches 12-week progress point as stipulated in the contract and verified by receipt of MMIS form.
   c. Payment of $428 per enrollee graduate as verified by receipt of MMIS form. The only eligible claimants for reimbursement under this provision for which the subcontractor can invoice are those enrollees who reached progress levels under clause (2) above.
   d. The amount of $428 per verified training-related job placement as stipulated in the contract and verified by receipt of MMIS form.

Clearly, a workable and effective contract document must flow from the negotiation process. The process itself should not be underestimated. It is during negotiations that not only prime sponsors' goals and objectives can be clearly delineated, but the prospective contractor can realistically lay out the parameters of implementation. It is helpful if

the principals involved with contract monitoring are also present during negotiations. Only when there is a meeting of minds and a clear enforceable document that reflects this meeting can successful performance be assured.

A "definition of terms" attached to every contractual document, defining "CETA enrollee," "placement," "other positive termination," "graduate," "program completer," or any other terminology to which several interpretations may apply can be invaluable for contract monitoring and reimbursement purposes.

Worksite Selection System

Much attention has been focused in our recent employment and training history on the need for coordinated job development, reduction of duplicate employer contacts, avoidance of employer harrassment, and so forth. All of this attention however, has focused on the employers in the private sector. Almost unnoticed has been the chaos in the public sector, where ACTION Volunteers, college work study (HEW), Programs for Local Service (HEW), public service employment (Labor), youth work experience (Labor and HEW), and a myriad of new program models that include experiential learning are all converging on the public and nonprofit sectors for "meaningful" work assignments. Some programs have specified pay scales; e.g., ACTION and Programs for Local Service at $50.00 per week; youth work experience at Federal minimum wage scales; and public service employment at "comparable wages" for comparable jobs. All of this program activity results in situations where trainees may be working side by side, performing relatively comparable tasks, at vastly different pay scales, Federal regulatory caveats notwithstanding.

In an effort to address this situation, prime sponsors might take steps toward administrative control of all assignments in the public and private nonprofit sector. By virtue of the preemptive role of the locally elected offical, they may find that this is much easier to accomplish than they realize.

Within the Baltimore prime sponsor structure, for example, one administrative unit has responsibility for developing, clearing, and assigning public and private nonprofit worksites for *all* program activities. In this manner, various departments, agencies, and organizations are not overloaded while others are overlooked; appropriate worksites are identified for specific program purposes; and the opportunities for career exploration, development and transition for all enrollees are substantially enhanced.

The Payment System

One of the chief advantages inherent in the use of work experience models is the ability to handle enrollee costs through a wage system rather than allowance payments. Although the enrollee may net less, wage payments complete with deductions for social security and witholding taxes are a powerful job simulator. Experience with allowance payments under categorical programs revealed that clients often netted *more* while enrolled in a training program than they were able to take home after gaining unsubsidized employment. Too often this led to attempted reenrollments and creation of groups of "career enrollees." Further, it was found that, when those enrollees were eventually hired, they were unfamiliar with the required Internal Revenue Service witholding procedures and practices and reacted negatively to their first paychecks, which were inevitably smaller than they had anticipated.

Work experience-type programs that pay enrollee wages should include information to clients on matters concerning allowable deductions and familiarity with IRS procedures. Contractors can establish their own payroll systems or utilize municipal payroll systems. There are also great advantages in fiscal accountability and fiscal control to utilizing centralized municipal systems. Regular time attendance sheets can be furnished to each contractor with printouts of authorized enrollees (enrollees on whom entry tickets have been submitted). Then the contractor can be given responsibility for supplying the prime sponsor with accurate and timely payroll information. After attendance has been checked, this information can be forwarded to a central payroll office. All enrollee paychecks can then be delivered to the contractor who distributes the wages in his or her role as "employer."

Midway through training, the "employer" can evaluate the performance of all "workers" and rate them on attendance, attitude, and progress. At this midpoint, the contractor-employer can recommend enrollees for wage increments. Thus, in various ways the administrative payment plan design can act as positive training reinforcement and an effective job simulation for all work experience-type activities.

Scheduling for Implementation

After program activity goals and objectives have been identified, client groups targeted for service, program content developed and validated by relevant community advisers, and a viable administrative delivery and support system established, one key element of the planning process remains before a program is implemented. A carefully scheduled action plan must be developed that has sufficient time frames allotted for complex activities in order to avoid continual crisis management. An example of one such action plan is cited for illustrative purposes.

Probably no other CETA activity with the exception of public service employment receives the kind of massive resources that are committed to the Summer Program for Economically Disadvantaged Youth (SPEDY). Because of the short-term operational period, traditionally coupled with a late announcement of funding levels, planning connected with this program activity has often been charac-

terized as frenzied and chaotic. However, it now appears that a firm precedent has been set for regular funding and thus prime sponsors would be well advised to establish a year-round scheduled planning process to maximize the full potential and impact of the summer work experience.

The suggested timetable below, with a brief explanation of associated activities, is taken from the operational plan of the Baltimore Summer Corps, run by the youth services arm of the local prime sponsor.

Baltimore Summer Corps

1. *Programmatic and geographic evaluation* (October and November):
   a. Program evaluation of administrative system; costs and benefits to enrollees and community; and enrollee and worksite productivity.
   b. Analysis of enrollees and worksites of prior summer by census tracts, compared with socioeconomic indexes of need, to determine "underserved" areas and provide direction for the following summer targeting.
2. *Worksite development* (December and January):
   a. Purpose is to develop work projects and slots in public and private nonprofit agencies.
   b. Mass mailing of worksite request forms to public and private nonprofit agencies and organizations, with particular attention to areas selected for targeting.
   c. Worksite projects must describe visible neighborhood improvements or visible services to community to be accomplished by enrollees, indicate amount of supervision available and tools or equipment to be furnished, and establish minimum and maximum levels of youth who can be supervised to accomplish individual project goals.
   d. Each worksite must identify a coordinator. (By broadening worksite development at the neighborhood level, the summer program has taken on a "grass roots" appeal with strong community participation. Creative activities have been generated in total contrast to the warehousing of youngsters into inhospitable host public agencies because of last-minute funding. Agency auctions — "Who will take a thousand kids?" — are now a thing of the past. By providing training and experience, many worksites can give valuable skills development opportunities for enrollment and, for many, their only work experience, many worksites can give valuable skills development opportunities for enrollees and, for many, their only work experience before assuming adult economic responsibilities.)
   e. Social Security card campaign in schools to encourage youth to apply for Social Security cards early. (This is usually accompanied by a mayor's press conference to focus community attention on the project and its educational value.)
3. *Worksite slot confirmation* (February and March):
   a. All worksite requests are scrutinized as to adequacy of all items and clauses cited above.
   b. Tentative slot levels are approved
4. *Worksite coordinator orientation* (February and March):
   a. Startup of intensive training for volunteer and paid temporary staff.
   b. Handbook developed to act as official reference throughout program operations.
5. *Referral, registration, and assignment* (February and March):
   a. Development of a referral, registration, and assignment plan.
   b. Orientation for staff of all referring sources: schools, recreation centers, social service agencies, and manpower service centers.
   (This is a component that is crucial to the success of the program. A well-thought-out referral, registration, and assignment plan, in contrast to a mass pushing and shoving free-for-all, can set the tone for the entire summer. Responsible community organizations can provide valuable assistance. The referring sources assure a broad outreach effort to target youth. Through this decentralized process, potential employing worksites can participate in the selection process, thus simulating the job interview. It is difficult to strike a responsible balance between broad outreach and the creation of unrealistic job expectations among poor youth in the community. However difficult, striving for that balance should always be the goal.)
6. *Staffing* (February and March):
   a. Hiring part-time staff to asssist in planning and preparation.
   b. Developing a full staffing plan (or assuring that the contractor has an adequate staff plan) and scheduling staff to come on board in time for adequate training.
7. *Implementing plan thus far and determining payroll procedures* (April):
   a. Implement the referral, registration, and assignment plan cited above (February and March).
   b. Clear payroll plan procedures with those responsible for implementation.
   c. Develop payroll procedures with good controls.
   (Nothing causes more consternation than a payday with no paychecks. Computerized systems depend on accurate input. Wrong Social Security numbers, misplaced digits, and incomplete paysheets will delay paychecks).
8. *Midseason procedures* (May and June):
   a. Payroll entry — Advance planning and registration allow for computerized entry tickets, placing all enrollees on local payroll that is coded by worksite location. Prior to opening day, each worksite will receive a computerized listing of assigned, authorized enrollees. The city payroll system will print an identification card for each enrollee to assist in cashing checks.
   b. Assignment reminders will be sent out two weeks

before program start date, in case earlier assignments were mislaid.

c. Full staffing — Field monitors and payroll clerks are among personnel needed to closely monitor all facets of the program operation. They should be on board at least three weeks prior to startup.

d. Dry run — On all worksites a preliminary "dry run" should be scheduled, as well as on all monitoring schedules. This is best done about a week before operations begin.

9. *Youth advisory committee:* A broad-based youth advisory committee meets on a year-round basis and is responsible for all relevant planning and policy recommendations.

10. *Evaluation:*

a. Once summer operations end, an evaluative analysis should start.

b. Scheduling for the following summer can now get under way (see item 1, October and November).

Summary

The keys to successful model building are: Sharply focusing program design; targeting the client groups to be impacted; deciding in advance what is to be accomplished; developing an evaluation-assessment design; building these expectations into the contractual agreement and, if possible, tying reimbursement to achievement of agreed benchmarks and measurable outcomes; undergirding activities with a firm administrative structure; and developing a realistic scheduled plan of implementation. If models do not meet expectations, they should be analyzed and modified, or rejected.

7. EXAMPLES OF PROGRAM MODELS

In this chapter, seven work experience models are described. The first, Baltimore's program, trains residents of public housing in providing security services in the housing projects. For reporting purposes, it is classified as "work experience"; however, the work experience is coupled with significant elements of classroom training in a college setting. The description parallels the design elements described in chapter 6.

Baltimore Metropolitan Consortium's Public Housing Security Aide Training

1. *Goals and objectives:*
   a. To improve security in high-rise public housing by training and hiring residents.
   b. To develop new careers for residents of public housing and improve their quality of life.
   c. To gradually change public housing security force from a contracted to an in-house residential force.
2. *Target Population:* Public housing residents, with emphasis on female heads of household on public assistance.
3. *Contractor:* Local college with an appropriate curriculum and flexible scheduling attuned to serving target population.
4. *Administrative structure:*
   a. Contract between prime sponsor and local college with housing department signoff. Intake through previously identified high-rise public housing offices.
   b. Department of Housing-assigned coordinator to local college to function as liaison and curriculum adviser.
   c. College provides faculty, equipment, all training resources, and support services through contractual resources.
   d. Prime sponsor assigns program analyst to monitor contract performance.
5. *Program content:*
   a. Strenuous curriculum includes law enforcement, karate, criminology, psychology, and sociology geared to enrollees, many of whom have not completed high school.
   b. During the first six months enrollees divide their time between the college (three days a week) and the work experience site (two days a week).
   c. During the last six months, enrollees are on work experience almost full time, returning to the college two evenings per week.
6. *Worksite selection:*
   a. All worksites are in high-rise public housing units, with a close match between enrollees and unit of residence.
   b. Worksite assignment is cleared through the prime sponsor's public worksite administrative unit.
7. *Payment plan:* In accordance with Federal regulations, some enrollees in this program earn wages and incentive increments, while others (AFDC clients) earn only the public assistance incentive allowance in addition to their grant. Both are administered through the municipal payroll system, and paychecks are distributed by the employer-contractor.
8. *Performance criteria:*
   a. It is expected that at least 75 percent of the enrollees will enter the second six months of the training phase.
   b. It is expected that at least 60 percent of the enrollees will complete training. All completers will have attained agreed-upon skill levels.
   c. The subcontractor will ensure that all completers in security training are placed in training-related, permanent, unsubsidized jobs.
   d. The average daily attendance during training will be 90 percent.
   e. The average hourly wage for an unsubsidized placement will be $3.25 per hour.
   f. Of all current enrollees at midpoint, 75 percent will receive a "good," "very good," or "excellent" training rating from the worksite supervisor on the Employee Progress Report.
   g. Of the trainees currently enrolled at the end of the training cycle, 95 percent will receive a "good" or "excellent" rating from the worksite supervisor on the Employee Progress Report.

The outcome of the Baltimore consortium's program is that 75 graduates, all residents of public housing, have completed training and are on the payroll of the local housing authority assigned to their particular units of residence. Several have received a GED and have continued enrollment in the college for additional training.

A group of 50 recently started training with a commitment by the housing authority to hire at least 25 and place other graduates in related training elsewhere. In addition, data are currently being collected that, upon preliminary review, indicate a 27 percent decrease in crime and improvement in residents' perceptions of safety conditions within the high-rise public housing units.

The second model is the Illinois balance-of-State experience of training technicians for State mental health facilities. In this activity, work experience in the field of mental health is provided by a State community health center, coupled with opportunities for classroom training at one of the three local community colleges (Highland Community College is the program agent). This arrangement provides unusual training opportunities for residents of six counties of Illinois.

Illinois Balance-of-State Mental Health Technician Training

1. *Goals and objectives:*
   a. Gain basic knowledge of health residential care.
   b. Prepare participants to move sequentially from coupled work experience to public service employment and then to unsubsidized employment in the mental health field.
2. *Target population:* Thirty-five young adults who have "poor self-esteem" (selected for this program activity with the hopes that interpersonal relationships with patients will enhance their own self-concept).
3. *Administrative structure:* CETA program agent pays enrollee wages as well as costs for college course. Mental health worksite provides on-the-job supervision.
4. *Program content:*
   a. Enrollees learn skills in the basic health care of patients in a residential center atmosphere. Enrollees also take training-related and general college courses concurrently with work experience to enhance future employability.
   b. Enrollment in this component can last for six months on a part-time basis.
   c. The CETA program agent makes on-site visits biweekly to develop a status report.
5. *Performance criteria:*
   a. Attendance, attitude.
   b. Ability to deal with patients.
   c. Readiness to move into phase of public service employment.
   d. Future employability.

By the end of the work experience training, the enrollees move into full-time service employment to further their experience. During this aspect, enrollees are given job search information and assistance in certification for civil service. After this phase, which lasts 12 months, 80 percent have been placed into unsubsidized jobs, many at the original mental health training site.

Youth Work Experience Linked with Secondary Education

The third program model is the Baltimore Metropolitan Consortium's Harbor City Learning Center (HCL). It is designed to address the problems of low labor force participation among minority youth and the lack of "holding power" of secondary education curricula for many youth. It is a complex design that uses multiple funding — from municipal general funds, HEW, and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) — with CETA as the principal funding resource. The program model is intended to enhance long-run economic and social payoffs for the school system, the enrollees, and the community. For reporting purposes, all activities generated by this design are aggregated and reported as CETA "work experience." The program model, however, effectively couples secondary education, teacher training, parenting training, and innovative support activities with the work experience. The fairly detailed description is excerpted from the existing contractual agreement and parallels the design elements described in chapter 6.

1. *Goals and objectives:*
   a. Holding power for dropouts and potential dropouts — To provide an alternative curriculum which will motivate dropouts to continue to participate in the educational and skill development process. This will be a *tightly interfaced* program of vocational exploration, counseling, academic instruction, and cultural enrichment. The four comprise a *process*, without discrete elements or boundaries, in which output of one will become substantive input to the others.
   b. Educational attainment and positive work experience — To assist enrollees in the development of work-related skills and in the attainment of educational objectives, including high school graduation or attainment of the GED through an integrated program of academic instruction and work experience.
   c. Knowledge of vocational opportunities; career exploration — To provide a variety of activities which will lead enrollees to the exploration of career clusters and career opportunities.
2. *Target population:* Seven hundred school dropouts or potential dropouts, 16 to 19 years of age, with little or no labor force participation background and at least functional literacy.

3. *Contractor:* Local public school system.
4. *Administrative structure:* Contract between prime sponsor and local school system with the schools having primary operational responsibility. However, due to innovative design and joint staffing, prime sponsor has full-time staff liaison on site. Although the joint staffing pattern has created some identity problems, time and strong leadership have merged the work force into an effective team.

The alternative curriculum component of HCL is based on a concept of "the city is the classroom" and consists of four mini-schools, each staffed by a cluster coordinator (prime sponsor funded), five teachers (school system funded), and two support staff (prime sponsor funded). This joint staffing pattern has enabled effective "field trained" staff to be assigned to a program run by a subcontractor (school system). This avoids traditional personnel requirements that precluded hiring persons with less formal credentials.

The organization diagram shown in chart 1 illustrates the staffing pattern that represents the resources of the school system, the prime sponsor, contracted staff, outstationed staff, and public service employment assignments.

When this model was designed, close study was made of the earlier out-of-school and in-school programs, the VEPS program, and a local experimental high school. The Harbor City Learning Center owes much to all of these programs and has built from that base. It was believed that work experience alone for school dropouts was of limited value. Baltimore's objective was to build a job-orientated academic program that departed from the traditional classroom situation, but one that was institutionalized within the school system.

This program is to be a relevant year-round educational experience with holding power for former dropouts. Three important program components emerged initially: A work experience component that would develop good work habits and expose youth to new careers; a functional curriculum that students would perceive as relevant; and a nonalienating, personalized learning environment where former dropouts would feel comfortable and able to succeed. Since school dropouts frequently become labor force dropouts, a critical part of the program is positive job experience to whet students' interest in the world of work, help them discover the types of jobs they find satisfying, and build motivation and self-confidence through successful job performance.

The underpinning of the HCL program for dropouts is four mini-schools, each of which offers nontraditional courses related to jobs in one of the following occupational clusters: Business, health, communications, and community services. For example, the mini-school correlated with health occupations teaches job-related biology. Students learn English composition by writing about the work done in hospitals; they apply math used in laboratory work, and history courses describe medical discoveries. The academic programs for each cluster were developed for HCL by specially assigned curriculum planners in the Baltimore school system.

Each former dropout enrolled in HCL chooses a mini-school according to his or her occupational interests and abilities. Individual learning is emphasized so that students can proceed at their own pace. And the mini-schools, which operate year-round, are set up in nonschool public buildings so that they do not resemble the traditional schools that dropouts left behind.

Every two weeks, students move from the nontraditional classrooms to related public sector worksites around the city, where they can sample different jobs in the clusters they have chosen. Enrollees earn academic credit for their work experience as well as "classroom" training. In addition, HCL teachers and worksite supervisors exchange visits to learn how to improve their respective activities and to better prepare the students for permanent jobs.

The prime sponsor's Public Worksite Development Unit develops worksites related to the academic focus of the four mini-schools or clusters. "Jobs" represent a broad range of difficulty and skill requirements. Through these worksites, students find — sometimes for the first time — that information they get in the classroom can be applied to the real world, and that their work experience helps them understand academic principles and theories.

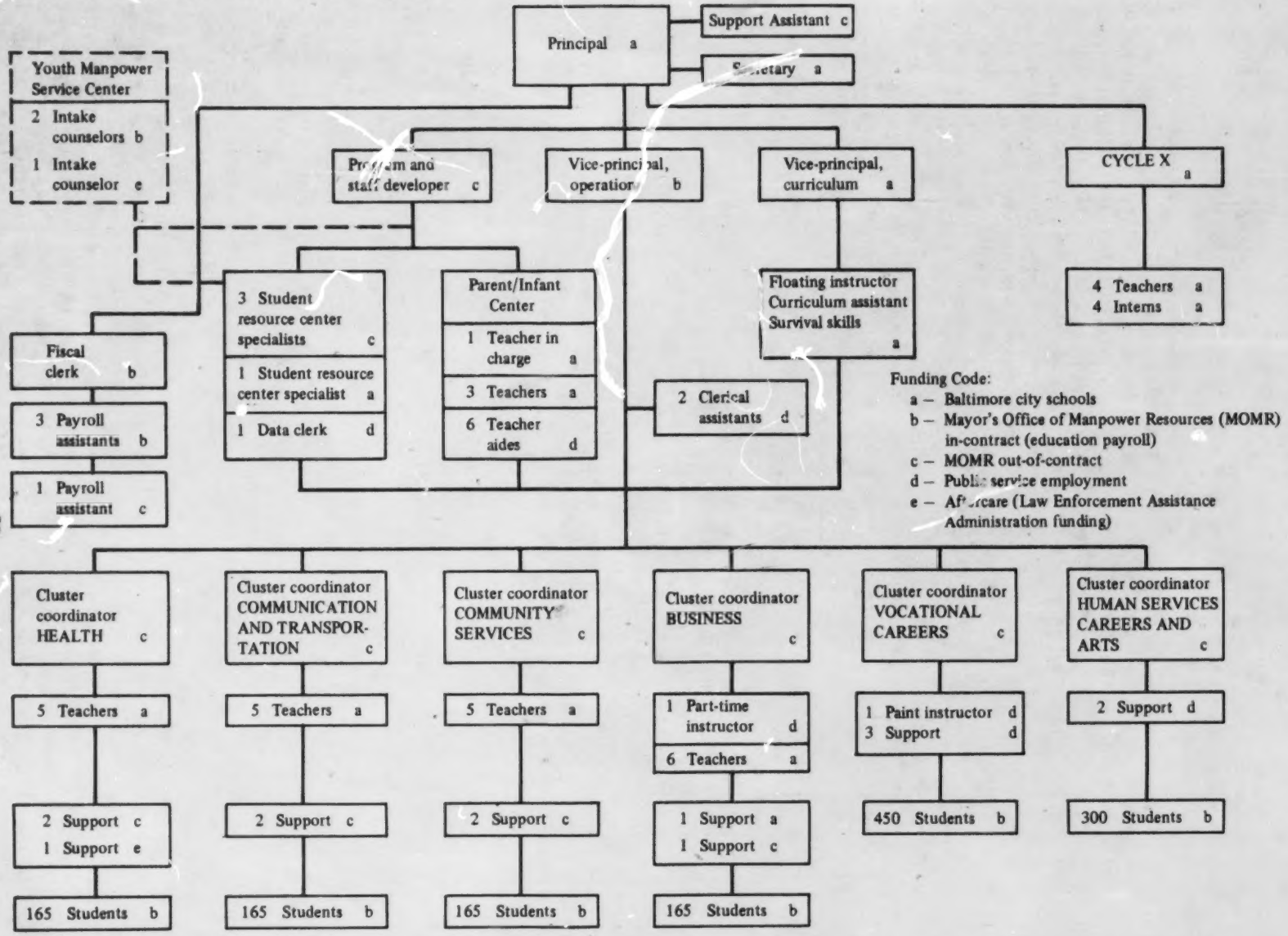
Enrollees are paid the Federal minimum wage for 60 hours per month, through a payroll system administered by the local school system. However, since the academic and work experience curricula are tightly interfaced, no student is permitted to earn wages without full participation in the total program.

Realizing that many dropouts need help in solving personal problems that affect attendance and school performance — including difficulties that prompted them to drop out in the first place — HCL program officials have established two centers to offer supportive services. One is the student resource center where a staff of counselors offers academic and career guidance. The resource center serves as an academic credit clearing house; counselors keep track of students' progress and let them know how much coursework they need to earn diplomas or GED's. Using a wide array of local manpower resources and the Job Bank microfiche, counselors also try to help students find jobs or other training options when they leave HCL.

Resource center counselors also provide personal counseling as needed. The emphasis is on preventing unacceptable behavior or crisis situations and getting to the root of student problems before they alter work or study performance. HCL enrollees have a voice in setting behavior standards. A student review committee discusses problem students and helps to set goals for their conduct and performance.

The other unusual supportive service available to HCL enrollees is a parent-infant center, where the children of HCL students also learn. This unit was set up to assist parents whose attendance or school performance was being hampered by lack of babysitters or resources to pay child care. Located in a building that houses two of the mini-schools, the center provides a learning environment for 45

Chart 1. Organization Diagram: Harbor City Learning Center



children who range in age from one to four. The parent-infant center also serves as a worksite for some of the enrollees. All student parents must participate in programs of the center to improve their own parenting skills. Four teachers and six public service employees staff the center and direct activities designed to help children and the student parents grow and learn.

The following is an excerpt from the center's contract contents and parallels a portion of the design elements of chapter 6.

Performance criteria:

1. Of the students enrolled during the first trimester, 80 percent will still be enrolled or will have graduated or passed the GED by the end of the school year.
2. Daily attendance will average 80 percent.
3. Enrollees entering the component during the first trimester and who complete the academic year will average a 1.0 grade increase in reading grade level.
4. Enrollees entering the component during the first trimester and who complete the academic year will average 1.5 grade increase in math grade level.
5. Of all students who leave Harbor City after attending for one year or more, 90 percent will leave because of graduation or passing the GED.
6. Of the students in the high school diploma track, 90 percent will pass four of the six academic subjects (exclusive of work eperience) at the end of each trimester.
7. On the Employee Progress Reports, a minimum of 80 percent of these students will receive a rating of "good" or better.
8. Of all first-year typing students in the business cluster, 80 percent will type 25 wpm with three errors at the end of the year.
9. Of all second-year typing students in the business cluster, 80 percent will type 40 wpm with three errors at the end of the second year.

Immediate job palcement is not the objective of a developmental concept such as HCL. Of the former dropouts in the program, 70 percent have been sufficiently interested to remain in the program for at least one year. Of 565 enrolled in fiscal 1976, 180 achieved a high school diploma in August 1976, and 320 returned in September 1976 for a second year. This has been sufficiently encouraging for both the school system and prime sponsor to augment resource allocation.

A new funding source is a recent LEAA grant to the prime sponsor to serve youthful offenders upon release from state juvenile institutions. Under a proposal entitled "Aftercare Alternatives," the prime sponsor proposed integrating those released directly into the Harbor City Learning Center, thus interfacing the criminal justice, educational, and manpower systems in serving a significant target population.

A new direction for HCL under the recent youth initiatives will be to use a VEPS-type model that will expand vocational exploration opportunities into the private sector. Sequential designs that include related paid work experience in the public sector, followed by a related on-the job placement after graduation, could provide an ideal school-to-work pattern.

Work Experience and Cooperative Education

This program, our fourth model, is funded under Title I of CETA. It is a summer career exploration project for youth who have been identified by the schools as potential dropouts. Summer employment is coupled with classroom training and supportive counseling in an attempt to improve youths' attitudes toward school and the world of work. The youth involved have traditionally displayed poor behavioral and educational traits.

The Shawnee (Illinois) Consortium Project

1. *Goals and objectives:*
   a. To provide 30 to 50 youth with opportunities for career exploration during summer months.
   b. To improve basic functional skills.
   c. To develop positive working attitudes.
   d. To encourage youth to return to school in the autumn.
2. *Target population:* Youth 14 to 15 years of age who are identified as potential dropouts and who have social and educational problems.
3. *Administrative structure:*
   a. The program is jointly sponsored by the Illinois State Department of Education and the Shawnee Consortium.
   b. The State Department of Education provides two instructors and the prime sponsor pays the enrollee costs.
   c. Two county high schools identify the youth, and the prime sponsor determines Title I eligibility and monitors programs.
   d. The program runs for 8 weeks, 30 hours per week.
   e. The school identifies the two teacher coordinators and takes responsibility for suitable worksites.
4. *Program content:*
   a. Youth attend classes for one hour per day. During these sessions the teacher-coordinator reviews basic job-related responsibilities; i.e., filling out applications and time sheets, postitive work attitudes. The remaining time is spent at the worksite.
   b. Worksites are developed by the teacher-coordinator in the fields of preconstruction, maintenance, health services, and so on. Volunteers supervise the youth at these worksites and submit weekly progress reports to the teacher-coordinator.
5. *Program implementation plan:*
   a. High school counselors select youth.
   b. CETA office performs intake procedures and verification.
   c. Teacher-coordinator develops work plan from

information gathered by school counselor.
   d. Plan is approved by CETA staff.
   e. CETA staff provides brief orientation for youth prior to start date.
   f. Weekly records are kept concurrently by State Department of Education and CETA officials.
6. *Performance criteria:*
   a. Punctuality and reliability.
   b. Productivity.
   c. "Job personality" assessment.

The outcome is that youth who return to school in the fall are then eligible to participate in the in-school work experience program (5 hours per week) to continue vocational exploration and reinforce their more positive "job personality" that was developed through the summer experience.

Work Experience Coupled with Job Search and Retention Training

This program design stresses the actual experiential learning that takes place on the job and provides supportive services targeted at improving enrollees' self-concepts and skills in coping. It is particularly adaptable to older out-of-school youth, ex-offenders, the handicapped, the long-term unemployed, or other particular population subgroups that face special barriers to employment. It is equally adaptable to serve enrollees with borderline skill levels; i.e., occupational knowledge beyond zero base yet insufficient to merit unsubsidized employment without "experience." Although the design may couple the work experience with remedial education, counseling, job search workshops, and so forth, all activities are aggregated for reporting purposes as CETA "work experience."

On the following pages, two models are presented: the Baltimore Consortium's Jobs Plus program and the Araphoe County (Colorado) program. The target population of the former specifies that a recipient must be 21 years of age.

The Baltimore Metropolitan Consortium's Jobs Plus Program

1. *Goals and objectives:*
   a. To bring about changes in participants' performance and self-concepts, thereby accomplishing institutional changes in the hiring attitudes and practices of employers toward particular population subgroups.
   b. To provide work experience opportunity that is reinforced by services designed to prepare the "hard to place" client to move on to an unsubsidized job or to an appropriate training program.
   c. To expose employers and supervisors to the capabilities and productive potential of "hard to place" jobseekers.
2. *Target population:* Must be 21 years of age and have one or more of the following —
   a. History of unsuccessful job search.
   b. Employed not more than 15 out of the last 52 weeks.
   c. Do not meet minimum requirements of most training programs.
   d. Read below fifth grade level.
   e. Recently released ex-offenders.
   f. Handicapped persons who may have completed training under other auspices (Veterans Administration, vocational rehabilitation, and so on), but are in need of a demonstrated employment track record to overcome employer skepticism.
3. *Contractor:*
   a. If the program is operated by direct service unit staff employed by the prime sponsor (as in this illustration), administrative costs may be substantially reduced.
   b. Possible contractors could be "halfway houses," community-based correctional agencies, or potential employing agencies.
4. *Administrative structure:*
   a. Prime sponsor staff support, augumented by linkages to adult education, Veterans Administration, vocational rehabilitation, and the criminal justice systems to provide smooth transition for the clients of these systems into the manpower delivery system.
   b. Planned program services are supplemented by an HEW grant to local adult education division for the purpose of providing tutors.
   c. Each participant is assigned to a group coordinated by a generalist who conducts workshops, oversees the implementation of individual employability plans, and keeps close contact with participants' employing agency (worksites).
5. *Program content:*
   a. Since most of the enrollees are motivated to work but lack appropriate work habits, work attitudes, social skills, and a stable work history, a work experience slot in a public or private nonprofit agency is made available for each client in the program.
   b. Emphasis is placed on the enrollee's potential and desire to work, and support is given in areas of time usage, decisionmaking, understanding authority, personal handling of money, and appropriate goal setting.
   c. To help participants handle their present job responsibilities and learn how to find and retain an unsubsidized job, there are mandatory workshops on job search skills. Emphasis is on learning how to negotiate the labor market on one's own.
6. *Worksite selection:*
   a. A pool of slots is made available by the prime sponsor's public worksite development unit.
   b. All worksites are geared to helping clients demonstrate to themselves and others that they can accept supervision, meet schedules, and be dependable and reliable.
   c. Every attempt is made to match enrollee interests to

available worksites.

7. *Payment plan:*
   a. Enrollees are considered temporary municipal employees and are reimbursed on an hourly basis through the payroll system.
   b. Enrollees are assessed midway through their enrollment by their team generalist and worksite supervisor to determine eligibility for a "merit increment."
8. *Performance effectiveness measures:*
   a. Employer ratings of enrollees.
   b. Attendance rates and sick leave rates.
   c. Retention rates.
   d. Proportion of trainees placed in unsubsidized jobs.
   e. Cost per job placement.
   f. Pre- and post-comparison of client's self-evaluation of job competence.

Data are not available on the outcome of this program because it was only recently implemented — in response to local stimuli: First, an extensive employer survey by the prime sponsor's labor market information unit indicated that employers are as concerned about potential employee attitudes and work habits as they are about actual occupational skills. Second, a review of the characteristics of persons registering for manpower services, but unable to meet minimum program eligibility criteria, underscored the need to develop a new program to serve these clients.

The sixth program model — and second in our description of work experience coupled with job search skills —is situated in Colorado.

Araphoe County Work Experience Model

1. *Goals and objectives:*
   a. To reinforce positive job attitudes and provide a work orientation for otherwise unemployable clients.
   b. To provide opportunity for CETA enrollees to upgrade skill levels to an "employable" status.
   c. To provide career opportunities with a large local Federal agency.
2. *Target population:* Those clients identified in prime sponsor's Career Development Center as requiring upgrading of skills and a good "track record" to become employable.
3. *Contractor:* A major Federal agency.
4. *Administrative structure:*
   a. Prime sponsor identifies, assesses, and refers clients who meet negotiated criteria to Federal agency that serves as contractor, trainer, and employer.
   b. The Federal agency provides the structured work setting, supervised training, and job placement assistance.
5. *Program content:*
   a. The contracted Federal agency has designed a skills upgrading and work experience program for office machine operators, mail clerks, and warehouse workers. Specific duties are outlined in the contract so that enrollees get increasing amounts of responsibility.
   b. The prime sponsor provides counseling and supportive services to reinforce the training objectives of the worksite.
   c. Monthly progress reports from the contractor to the prime sponsor on each enrollee provide the opportunity to evaluate the need for additional services.
   d. Additional job placement services provided by the contractor include introduction to civil service enrollment procedures.
6. *Worksite selection:* All located on facilities of contractor.
7. *Payment system:* All enrollees remain on the payroll of the prime sponsor during the work experience enrollment period.
8. *Performance effectiveness measures:*
   a. Employee ratings.
   b. Attendance rates and sick leave rates.
   c. Proportion placed in unsubsidized jobs.

The program is achieving its goal of providing the track record and job search skills that lead to employment. Almost every successful completer has been hired and has now achieved the first foothold to career employment.

Work Experience Targeted for Older Workers and Innovative Public Services

The seventh and final model in this chapter, the Cleveland Home Winterization Program, is similar in many respects to the first, the Public Housing Security Aide. Both designs are targeted to serve a specific client group, and both have a specific and planned spinoff of essential public service. These designs emphasize the gray area where it is almost impossible to distinguish between work experience and public service employment.

Cleveland Home Winterization Program

1. *Goals and objectives:*
   a. To winterize 400 homes belonging to elderly low-income homeowners.
   b. To effect a 7 percent reduction in gas consumption for equivalent degree days in a given time period.
   c. To provide useful and productive work experience for elderly CETA clients.
2. *Target population:* Older men (95 percent over 45; 36 percent over 55) with limited education and very limited job access or mobility.
3. *Administrative structure:*
   a. The program was mounted with the cooperation of the private sector (East Ohio Gas Company) for technical assistance in the field of energy conser-

vation.

b. The program received help from the following—
   1) Board of education (for free training in home winterization).
   2) The county welfare department (for identyfing emergency housing sites).
   3) Skills Available, a job counseling service for older citizens (for identyfing enrollees).
   4) CETA consortium (for enrollment, wages, and planning support).
   5) Council for Economic Opportunities (for furnishing materials, supplies, tools, office space, and project direction).

4. *Program content:*
   a. After the training provided by the board of education, enrollees were assigned to "cases" to which priorities had been established due to high heating bills.
   b. Winterization consisted of attic insulation, weather stripping and caulking of doors and windows, repair and replacement of doors and windows, and checking of furnace and its filters.
   c. A spinoff of the winterization project is the Home Repair Project in which minor housing code violations are corrected.

5. *Program implementation plan:*
   a. Certification and followup procedures were developed for program control.
   b. Income verification, followed by verification of home ownership, certifies eligibility.
   c. An estimator analyzes the work and materials needed, receives the homeowner's written authority to do the work, and writes up a work plan for the operations office.
   d. After the work plan is approved by the administrative authority, the plan is sent to the operations office for work scheduling, crew assignment, and delivery of materials.
   e. After completion of the work, followup inspection is made and the homeowner is asked to sign off as to his or her satisfaction with the quality and completeness of the work.

6. *Performance criteria:*
   a. Cost-benefit — heat cost savings equivalent to or exceeding direct cost of winterization.
   b. Energy conservation benefit.
   c. Indirect placement or other positive temination of enrollees.

By September 30, 1976, 378 homes had been winterized, with an additional 53 brought to housing code standards. Only a 2 percent complaint rate has been registered, and this has been accomplished with an "unemployable" work force of older males, 55 percent of whom had less than high school education. In addition, overcoming the complexities of the various interagency policies and procedures has established a precedent for sponsoring additional comparable activities. For example, participants in this project acted as supervisors for small groups of youth in special summer projects, and a similar project is planned involving soon-to-be released House of Correction and juvenile correctional inmates.

This model successfully demonstrates institutional cooperation and change, expanded public service delivery, and increased and successful labor force participation among various CETA target groups.

Summary

It is hoped that, through careful reading of these program designs, new possibilities for creative and flexible programming may become apparent to more prime sponsors. It is also hoped that manpower policymakers at all levels develop a fuller appreciation of the range of activities that are taking place throughout the country under the category of "work experience."

The program types reviewed here seem to fall into a few basic models. First, work experience, coupled with secondary education, obviously targeted for youth and ranging from a five- to ten-hour "add-on" to full-blown alternative curriculum designs for dropouts. With the renewed national focus on youth, many other designs are possible within this model. It is hoped that the role of the private sector can be increased by pursuance of controlled work experience opportunities in the private sector. Overall outcomes of designs under this model should not be expected to produce job placement in the short run but may substantially improve the quality of the labor force in the long run.

Second, work experience, coupled with coping skills, may serve as an umbrella model for a number of program designs. These designs are characterized by heavy emphasis on the actual work experience, reinforced by a relatively less structured schedule of supportive services that are designed to improve self-concepts, attitudes, and coping skills. Enrollees in these designs are likely to be "undereducated underachievers" with many barriers to employment. However, if a program is properly designed, a reasonably high percentage of positive outcomes can be anticipated.

A third basic model emerges as work experience, coupled with skills training. This design includes all of the components of the traditional institutional training program. However, it is enriched by a rotation of enrollees through actual or simulated job experiences to test their skill proficiency, provide actual work orientation, and ease the trauma of transition form the sheltered world of training. To provide additional work simulation, wages are paid, appropriate social security and IRS deductions made, and incentive increments are authorized.

Finally, all of the work experience models may have the significant additional impact of adding to the actual quality and quantity of delivered public services.

A Final Word

Within the context of this monograph, material has been discussed with a view to broadening the understanding of the potential of work experience or experiential learning as a manpower strategy. This material is based on the experience of several prime sponsors and is designed to assist planners and policymakers at the local level in building models to solve the local labor market problems of jobseekers and employers. It is hoped that, through this review of "field operations," planners and policymakers at other levels of government, as well as academicians in their role as "friend of the court," may broaden their perceptions of the various manpower strategies, particularly work experience.

To realize the potential of decentralization and decategorization and to deal with some of our major policy problems, new, innovative and flexible program designs are urgently needed. Everything possible should be done to encourage new groundbreaking. Current reporting systems, traditional categorical definitions, artificial and arbitrary distinctions between employment and training activities such as on-the-job training and work experience in the private sector or work experience and public service employment serve only to constrain program design and inhibit creativity.

The employment and training policy direction most important to local elected officials is policy directed toward creating and maintaining a stable and skilled work force—one that will encourage local industry to stay and expand and one designed to attract new industry. Therefore, although immediate job placement at minimum wages may provide instant gratification for statistical reporting purposes, it is the "quick fix" that often ill serves the more permanent stability sought at the local level.

The policy direction most important to jobseekers or potential jobseekers is a mix of opportunities designed to assist them in becoming economically self-sufficient on a permanent basis. These opportunities should include the chance for career exploration, for skills training in needed occupations, for development of acceptable work habits, and for "attitudinal conditions," as well as a chance for developing self-confidence.

The active constituency of potential participants has broadened considerably since the origin of categorical programs. Today, the ex-offender, the handicapped, the displaced homemaker, the recent immigrant, and the early retiree have joined our constituency and are aggresively demanding a share of services. And the community at large has a stake in the direction of local employment and training policy and the local strategy mix. The results are all the better if the developmental needs of the potential jobseekers and the motivational and skills training needs of employers can be met, while at the same time improving the delivery of local services.

Why not a program model that trains youth while reducing truancy and dropout rates? Why not a program model that supplements older persons' income while winterizing the homes of the poor? Why not program models that encourage cooperative planning and delivery of services among the giant and often rigid institutions of every community — the schools, the courts, the health systems, the unions, and the employment and training system?

This monograph suggests that creative use of allowable activities subsumed under the title "work experience" may provide the most flexible instrument for coping with these varying policy goals.

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Where to Get More Information

For more information on this and other programs of research and development funded by the Employment and Training Administration, contact the Employment and Training Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20213, or any of the Regional Administrators for Employment and Training whose addresses are listed below.

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